

The Complementation of the Adjective *Intent* in Recent Centuries

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English Philology
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MA Thesis
2015

Tampereen yliopisto
Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjallisuustieteiden yksikkö
Englantilainen Filologia

Lämsä, Hanna: The Complementation of the Adjective *Intent* in Recent Centuries.

Pro gradu –tutkielma, 78 sivua
Toukokuu 2015

Tutkin tässä pro gradu –tutkielmassa adjektiivin *intent* komplementaatiota britannianenglannissa sekä sen diakronista muutosta vuosien 1710-1993 aikana. Tarkoitukseni on selvittää minkä komplementaatiolausekkeiden kanssa adjektiivi esiintyy eri ajanjaksoina sekä miten adjektiivin eri merkitykset vaikuttavat lausekkeiden valintaan.

Käytän tutkielmassani aineistona korpusesimerkkejä kahdesta eri korpuksesta: vuosien 1710-1920 korpusesimerkit ovat peräisin korpuksen *The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* kolmannesta versiosta (*CLMET3*) ja myöhemmät korpusesimerkit vuosilta 1960-1993 puolestaan korpuksesta *The British National Corpus* (*BNC*). *CLMET3* jakaantuu kolmeen osaan vuosille 1710-1780, 1780-1850 ja 1850-1920 ja tutkielmassani keskityn analysoimaan materiaalia jokaisesta osasta erikseen. Koska *CLMET3*:n aineisto koostuu pääosin kaunokirjallisesta materiaalista rajasin myös *BNC*:stä otettavan aineiston korpuksen kaunokirjalliseen osaan aineistojen vertailtavuuden takaamiseksi.

Tutkielmani aluksi käyn läpi adjektiivia *intent* aikaisemmin käsitellyttä kirjallisuutta ja kielioppiteoksia sekä tutkin erityisesti adjektiivin merkityksiä ja sen kanssa esiintyviä komplementtilausekkeita kolmessa suuressa englannin kielen sanakirjassa *The Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*), *The Oxford Advanced Learner's dictionary* (*OALD*) ja *The Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (*M-WD*). Tämän jälkeen esittelen yleisiä komplementaatioon vaikuttavia ja sitä käsitteleviä teorioita erityisesti adjektiivin *intent* näkökulmasta. Adjektiivia analysoitaessa käsittelen *CLMET3*:n jokaisen osion erikseen siirtyen *BNC*:n aineistoon viimeisenä ja edeten näin kronologisessa järjestyksessä korpuksia käsitellessä.

Tutkielman tulokset osoittavat, kuinka adjektiivin *intent* komplementaatio muuttuu vuosien aikana siihen suuntaan, että adjektiivi esiintyy nykypäivänä yhä useammin ilman komplementtia. Lisäksi komplementtilauseke *on* + *-ing*-clause on kivunnut nykyään yleisimpänä esiintyväksi komplementiksi vielä *CLMET3*:ssä yleisimpinä esiintyvien *on* + NP ja *upon* + NP komplementtilausekkeiden ohi. Tutkielman tuloksista käy myös selvästi ilmi, että adjektiivin *intent* eri merkitykset vaikuttavat komplementin valintaan huomattavasti.

Asiasanat: komplementaatio, komplementti, intent, korpus, korpuslingvistiikka, korpus, adjektiivi

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1 Introduction

In this thesis I will examine the adjective *intent* and its complementation. I will study how *intent* features in the literature i.e. I will discuss the senses of the adjective in *The Oxford English Dictionary*, in *The Oxford Advanced Learners' Dictionary* and in *The Merriam-Webster Dictionary* and, moreover, look into the adjective in the major grammars of English. Furthermore, I will introduce theoretical background of complementation and several factors bearing on complementation and differentiate complements from adjuncts. I will briefly introduce the corpora I will use in the research, the British National Corpus and the corpus of Late Modern English Texts. I will use the third version of the corpus of Late Modern English Texts (henceforth CLMET3) in the analysis of the adjective. Then I will investigate the complementation patterns and the factors bearing on the complementation of *intent* which emerge from the BNC and the CLMET3 Parts 1, 2, and 3 and compare the results gathered from each time period diachronically. In addition, I will compare the results with the tendencies found in the literature, as well as discuss how the different patterns are used with different senses and how the extra-semantic factors feature with the adjective *intent*.

Change is inherently a fundamental feature of any living language, and there is still a great deal to be learnt from the different ways language changes over time through different mechanisms that cause these changes. Especially as language represents our ways of thinking and communicating with each other, the study of these changes and how they develop over time will help us understand how our own ways of thinking change, which brings about the changes in the language. I will adopt the view of Hunston and Francis (2000, 83), among others, that the uses of grammatical structures and patterns are connected to the meaning of a word. Thus the ways these structures are applied would also be affected by how the meaning of the structure and the meaning of the word

determining the structure changes. This is why I see it important to study the way the use of the structures with different meanings changes, in order to better understand the fundamental ways the language changes.

I chose to study these periods of English, furthermore, since the Late Modern English period has been largely ignored in the study of the English. I will compare the time periods included in the CLMET3 with the time span in the BNC to form a better understanding of the developments of the complementation of *intent*. Moreover, the complementation patterns of the adjective *intent* have not been thoroughly studied during the Late Modern English period and compared with more recent data, on which I will be concentrating in my thesis.

In conclusion, I will be focusing on the following research questions in the analysis of the adjective *intent*:

- (i) What are the complementation patterns to appear with *intent* during the years 1710-1993? Are there diachronic changes to be found with these complementation patterns?
- (ii) How do the findings correlate with the information in the grammars, dictionaries and earlier literature on *intent*?
- (iii) How do the extra-semantic factors, especially the Complexity Principle and the Extraction Principle, bear on the complementation patterns of *intent*?
- (iv) How do the different senses and the complementation patterns of *intent* correlate with each other?

2 The Adjective *Intent* in the Literature

2.1 Etymology

The adjective *intent* is originally derived from the Latin word *intentus* which means “bent on (something), strained, attentive, earnest, eager” (*OED Online*).

2.2 The Senses of *Intent*

I will discuss the senses of *intent* found in three major dictionaries; *The Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth *OED*), the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (henceforth *OALD*) and the *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (henceforth *M-WD*). I will display the senses, illustrations and the complementation patterns in a table in order that they are easy to compare and discuss. I have disregarded the illustrations in which *intent* is attributive, as they are not of interest to our present discussion of complementation because they do not take complements.

Senses	Illustrations	Patterns
OED 1. Having the mind strenuously bent upon something; earnestly attentive, sedulously occupied, eager, assiduous; bent, resolved. a. Constituent. <i>on, upon</i> ; formerly <i>to</i> (at) or <i>inf.</i>	1. Intent on high designs, a thoughtful band. (O. Goldsmith, <i>Traveller</i> , 1764) 2. They had met him riding along, intent upon his psalter. (C. Kingsley, <i>Hereward the Wake I</i> , 1866) 3. Intent on securing what seemed to be a good head of horns. (J. Inglis, <i>Tent Life Tigerland</i> , 1888)	[– <i>on</i> + NP] [– <i>upon</i> + NP] [– <i>on</i> + – <i>ing</i> -clause]
b. Without constituent.	4. The patient Fisher takes his silent Stand Intent, his Angle trembling in his Hand.(Pope, <i>Windsor-Forest</i> , 1713) 5. He stood, with folded arms, musing and intent. (E. Bulwer-Lytton, <i>Rienzi III</i> , 1835)	[– Ø] [– Ø]
2. Of the faculties, looks, etc.: Directed with strained or keen attention; earnest, eager, keen; intense. Const. <i>on, upon</i> († <i>to</i>).	6. The eye is intent upon watching the changes. (C. Lucas, <i>Ess. Waters</i> , 1756) 7. So intent was his elegant mind on those treasures of literature and	[– <i>upon</i> + – <i>ing</i> -clause] [– <i>on</i> + NP]

	art. (I. D'Israeli, <i>Comm. Life Charles I</i> , 1830) 8. His eyes are large...their expression is intent and meditative. (C. Brontë, <i>Shirley I</i> , 1849)	[- Ø]
3. Intensively active. Opposed to remiss. Obsolete.	The only illustration from 1650.	
OALD 1. Showing strong interest and attention.	9. His eyes were suddenly intent.	[- Ø]
2. Determined to do something, especially something that will harm other people. <i>Intent on/upon</i> something. (formal)	10. They were intent on murder. 11. Are you intent upon destroying my reputation?	[- <i>on</i> + NP] [- <i>upon</i> + - <i>ing</i> -clause]
3. Giving all your attention to something. <i>Intent on/upon</i> something.	12. I was so intent on my work that I didn't notice the time. 13. The bright brown eyes were intent on Marie.	[- <i>on</i> + NP] [- <i>on</i> + NP]
M-WD 1. Directed with strained or eager attention. Concentrated.	14. Intent on finishing her sculpture in time for the group show.	[- <i>on</i> + - <i>ing</i> -clause]
2. Having the mind, attention, or will concentrated on something or some end or purpose. (In M-W Learner's Dictionary the pattern <i>intent on/upon</i> mentioned)	15. He was so intent on his work that he didn't hear the dog bark.	[- <i>on</i> + NP]

Table 1. Patterns and senses

When we compare the findings with the senses found in the *OED*, *OALD* and *M-WD*, we can rule out the third sense of *OED* as obsolete as there are no occurrences after 1650. More importantly, the senses 1 in the *OED*, 1 and 3 in the *OALD* and 2 in the *M-WD* can be grouped together as they all have broadly similar meaning; “showing strong interest or attention”. Moreover, the senses 2 in the *OED* and 1 in the *M-WD* have substantially similar meaning and can be listed under one sense; “determined to do something.” The second sense in the *OALD* has a kind of specified and formal sense that I will include in the sense “determined to do something” because the sense shares some nuances with this group. Moreover, the sense would presumably be very marginal and infrequent. In my study, I will focus on these two senses:

1. Showing strong interest and attention.
2. Determined to do something.

The patterns that we find in the dictionaries for both senses are *on* + NP, *on* + *-ing*-clause and zero complement. However, the pattern *upon* + *-ing* clause is only found in example of Sense 2 and the pattern *upon* + NP only with Sense 1. Although we must consider that the sample of the illustrations is quite small, we can note that the pattern *on* + NP and zero complement are slightly more frequent with Sense 1 in the dictionaries. Thus it could be expected that there is a slight tendency for the non-sentential patterns to appear with Sense 1 in the data as well. The clearest examples of the two simplified senses found in the dictionaries are shown underneath, to give a more precise idea of the meanings the two senses bear:

Sense 1: “The bright brown eyes were **intent on Marie**.” (OALD)

Sense 2: “Are you **intent upon destroying** my reputation?” (OALD)

Here we can clearly see the difference in the meaning between the two senses, since in the first example the full attention of the subject is solely concentrated on the concrete object, Marie, whereas in the second example the subject is determined in achieving the goal, “destroying my reputation”, but the means or the exact action taken remains unclear. The Sense 1 here would seem to express the concrete object better when compared to Sense 2.

2.3 Grammars

In his *Grammar of Late Modern English* Poutsma (1904, 665) discusses *intent* and its complementation patterns. He lists *on/upon* + *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive clause but notes that “the use of infinitive(-clause) after *intent*, according to Murray, is obsolete” (ibid.).

(1) ...I was **intent upon evading** the law... (Stead, *In Our Midst*, Letter I.)

In his *Dictionary of Constructions* Poutsma (MS) lists even more patterns for *intent*, such as *to* + NP, *(up)on* + NP, *upon* + *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive-clause:

(2) ...The Court of Rome, so potent, so prudent, so **intent to their own advantage**... (Bramhall, *Just Vind.*, Ch. IV)

(3) ...He was so **intent upon it** that I had ample leisure to observe the large paper kite in a corner... (Dick., *Cop.*, Ch. XIV)

- (4) ...The farmers are **intent on getting** in the hay... (Escott, *England*, Ch. II)
 (5) ...If I endeavoured to preserve a life she is so **intent to destroy**... (Earl Orrery, *Parthen.*,15)

Poutsma (MS) notes, however, that the pattern with *(up)on* + NP is the only one that is used in English today and, similarly to the notion in his grammar, he asserts that the *to*-infinitive-clause construction "has become antiquated".

Biber et al. (1999, 749) feature *intent* when they discuss adjectival predicates that control *-ing*-clauses and further note that the majority of the adjectives controlling *-ing*-clauses "convey either an affective stance or some other evaluation".

Quirk et al. (1985, 1221) state that *intent* belongs to the adjectives which form a firm lexical unit with the following preposition and thus the preposition is obligatory with this adjective. They also assert that the preposition can vary with these adjectives, too (ibid.). They give two complements for *intent*; *on* and *upon* (ibid.).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543-544) similarly state that *intent* belongs to the adjectives with which "the complement is wholly or virtually obligatory." They too list *on* and *upon* as the complements that *intent* licences (ibid.). Moreover, they state that *upon* is more formal than *on* (ibid.).

3 Theoretical Background of Complementation

3.1 Complementation

When familiarizing oneself with a new term, an efficient way is to start with looking up the term in a dictionary in order to fully understand the meaning. The word *complementation* is explained in *OED* as follows:

► noun

1. [*mass noun*] the action of complementing something.
2. (*Grammar*) all the clause constituents that are governed by a verb, nominalization, or adjective: *information as to a verb's complementation tells the learner about its meaning*.
3. (*Genetics*) the phenomenon by which the effects of two different non-allelic mutations in a gene are partly or entirely cancelled out when they occur together.

The second definition is of interest for us here, although the first definition does give the same meaning in a simpler manner, as with complementation one can refer to a word simply being complemented by a structure or structures. The second definition explains what kind of constituents are being referred to with the word complementation, thus explaining the term from a more practical point of view.

In the literature the term complementation, as Quirk et al. (1985, 65) observe, refers to "the function of a part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies". In other words, the "part of a phrase or clause" is the complement of "a word" which is normally an adjective or a verb and this complement is required to make the meaning of a verb or an adjective complete (ibid.). As the definition by Quirk et al. (ibid.) above implies, the complement may be an obligatory part of the phrase as it makes the phrase complete, but it may also be optional. In the following chapters I will discuss the distinction between the optional and the obligatory elements further. In the case of optional complements Quirk et al.

(1985, 66) note, however, that the complement that is omitted in a sentence can still be understood or constructed from the context. As an example they present the clause "The boat was ready (for departure)" in which "for departure" is an optional complement but if it is left out, the sentence can still be understood to mean that "The boat was *ready for something*" (ibid.).

3.2 Complements versus Adjuncts

Complements and adjuncts are somewhat difficult to differentiate and appear in similar environments, which is why I will list some of the most useful means that will help to tell them apart and also give the most significant characteristics of the both items. Herbst et al. (2004, xxiv) characterise adjuncts as elements whose form is not governed by the verb of a sentence and which can appear relatively freely, independently of another elements in the sentence. The independence can be observed from the following sentences with which Herbst et al. demonstrate this feature, as the noun phrase adjunct in example 1 can be substituted by a prepositional phrase in example 2, in 3 by an adverb phrase and in 4 by an adverbial clause (ibid.):

1. I put the paper and kindling by the fire *last night*.
2. I put the paper and kindling by the fire *at 5 p.m.*
3. I put the paper and kindling by the fire *then*.
4. I put the paper and kindling by the fire *before I went to bed*.

Complements, however, are elements that the preceding verb or adjective requires, in other words they are the elements that must follow and according to Herbst et al. "Complements are seen as being dependent upon the governing verb" (ibid.). Haegeman (1991, 39) adds to this notion by commenting on the adjectival complements that they can "often be left implicit", on contrary to the verbal complements with which this is rarer.

Somers (1984, 509) has a similar view with Herbst et al. and states that complements may be either obligatory or optional but adjuncts differ from them in that they are always optional

elements in a sentence. He (1984, 510) introduces the elimination test and the extraction test which serve to investigate the obligatory nature of the elements and thus differentiate complements from adjuncts. In the elimination test we scrutinise the syntactic correctness, i.e. the grammaticality of a sentence by eliminating an element and observing whether the sentence remains grammatical or not and thus separate the obligatory elements from the optional ones (ibid.). The extraction test, however, is used to research the semantic correctness of the sentence, which is done by eliminating all the unnecessary elements in the sentence as long as the meaning of the sentence does not change (ibid.). The difference between the tests is that the extraction test reveals how closely an element is associated with the verb (or the adjective), i.e. whether it is a complement or an adjunct, while the elimination test only reveals whether the element is obligatory or not (1984, 511). When we combine the tests mentioned above with the *do so* test we can quite reliably differentiate complements from adjuncts, but I will not introduce it further here because it cannot be applied with adjectives, which are of interest in our present study.

Another detail that differentiates prepositional complements from prepositional adjuncts is that with prepositional complements we cannot replace the preposition following the complement with a near-synonymous one but with adjuncts it is often possible to do so and Somers (1984, 514) gives some examples to show this:

1. Inge is arguing *with* her friend.
2. *Inge is arguing *in the company of* her friend.
3. Anne is travelling to Geneva *with* her friend.
4. Anne is travelling to Geneva *in the company of* her friend.

Examples 1 and 2 demonstrate how the prepositional complement of *argue* cannot be replaced by another one, but with the prepositional adjuncts in 3 and 4 the substitution is possible. In general terms, Somers also states that complements are more closely related to the verb or the adjective and

further define it, whereas adjuncts and other elements contribute to the meaning of the entire predication, i.e. to the complements as well as to the predicator (ibid.).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 218-229) give several factors which can be applied to differentiate complements from adjuncts and next I will introduce the most applicable ones of them. Licencing refers to the characteristic of complements as they are licenced by the verb or the adjective, i.e. the verb or the adjective requires a certain kind of complement, whereas adjuncts are not restricted by the verb or the adjective preceding them and can occur rather independently, as they note (2002, 219). This can be observed especially with prepositional phrases that function as complements since the verb or the adjective often licence only one or two prepositions that can follow them and, as Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 220) note, "the prepositions here are not replaceable without loss of grammaticality ... or an unsystematic change in the meaning". We can use *intent* as an example as we have already observed that it licences *on* and *upon* as its prepositional complements. Moreover, a verb or an adjective can also licence a subordinate clause as its complement, but the type of the clause is restricted the same way as is the choice of the preposition (ibid.). A subordinate clause can also be an adjunct but it is not restricted in any way by the verb or the adjective preceding it (ibid.). In the case of *intent*, the subordinate clauses that function as the complements and were mentioned in the grammars are the *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive clause, the latter of which was said to be obsolete.

The obligatoriness is more restricting than licencing and refers to the fact that they can sometimes be obligatory, i.e. the verb demands a certain complement to follow it, whereas adjuncts are always optional elements in a sentence, as Huddleston and Pullum observe (2002, 221). With this criterion, however, we come across the optional complements, which are not as clearly differentiated from adjuncts as obligatory complements are but with the help of the extraction test and elimination test I have already introduced this can be achieved.

3.3 Factors Bearing on Complementation

3.3.1 The Complexity Principle

Rohdenburg (2003, 205) defines the Complexity Principle as a tendency to use more explicit expressions in more complex environments. He also states that the more explicit alternatives originate first, and survive longer in these kind of complex contexts (ibid.). According to him (1996, 149), the more complex environments, which are also known as complexity factors, include "discontinuous constructions of various kind, passive constructions and the length of the subjects, objects, and subordinate clauses concerned". The discontinuous constructions refer for instance to sentences or phrases that have inserted elements such as adverbial elements between the verb or the adjective and the complement. What the more explicit alternatives actually are is, however, more difficult to define. Rohdenburg (1996, 152) defines them rather generally by stating that "the bulkier element or construction" is usually the more explicit one. At the most simple level and in most cases this means that the more explicit construction has more words or is the longer element, but the choice must be considered individually with each case as there are no clear rules to define the difference. Rohdenburg (1996, 151) gives some examples of the pairs of more explicit and less explicit constructions which include finite and non-finite clauses, *to*-infinite and bare infinitive clauses, and the prepositions *upon* and *on*. Furthermore, he (1996, 152) claims that the principle has an "enormous range of application".

Rohdenburg (1996, 152) observes that other factors, such as stylistic and semantic tendencies, also affect the choice of the alternative constructions and must be taken into consideration when assessing the complexity factors. For example more complex constructions also tend to be more formal constructions, which affects the choice between the more and the less explicit construction and can be seen with the preposition *upon* and *on*, of which the former is the more explicit but also the more formal one.

3.3.2 Extractions

Extractions, also known as transformations, are a complexity factor and extracting is basically a process by which surface structures are generated. They transform the basic order of the English constituents, SVO, as an element is moved from its normal place. Extractions belong to the movement rules which I will first discuss briefly as they help in understanding the extractions. Haegeman (1991, 26) introduces one of the most basic movement rules which can be applied to form sentences from the constituents. The basic English word order SVO is generated by applying these phrase structure rules. However, with extractions, these constituents can be moved for instance to highlight and compare constituents or to form questions.

The types of constituents Vosberg (2003, 307) lists are relative extractions, comparative extractions, topicalization and interrogation, the latter of which Huang (1997, 123) calls *wh*-questions. In *wh*-questions, which are also known as constituent questions (Haegeman 1991, 28), a constituent is replaced by a *wh*-word which is then transferred to the initial position by a process which Huang (1997, 124) calls *wh*-movement, as in the following example from Vosberg (2003, 307):

1. It is the worthy Spencer, whom, I'm sure you remember to have often heard me mention in the relation of my private misfortunes... (John Dauncey, *The English Lovers*, 1622)

In topicalization a constituent has been moved to the initial position in a sentence to serve as the topic, which is then commented on in the following part of the sentence (Huang, 1997, 129). These first two types of extractions, topicalization and *wh*-questions, are used most frequently. Vosberg (2003, 307) gives an example of topicalization as well:

2. ... even her acquaintance with the Belfields, she remembered not ever mentioning... (Fanny Burney, *Cecilia*, 1782)

In comparative extractions some elements are simply compared using the pattern *more...than*, as in the example from Vosberg (ibid.) underneath:

3. .. 'Twas her Charming Face and modest Look, that represented to him a thousand more Beauties and taking Graces, than he remembred ever to have seen in his Unconstant and Faithless Mistress... (Philip Ayres, *The Revengeful Mistress*, 1696)

Relative extractions, according to Huang (1997, 130), are among the most frequent extractions and are often hard to discern in the text as they are so frequently used. Relative extractions are usually found in normal relative clauses which are formed with the relative pronoun and actually provide additional information about the noun (ibid.). But the main interest with extractions is that they create "filler-gap dependencies" as with for example *wh*-questions a constituent is replaced by a *wh*-word and moved to the initial position, which leaves a gap in the original position of the replaced constituent (Vosberg, 2003, 307). As these filler-gap domains grow longer the sentence becomes more difficult to process and interpret, which is why extractions can be said to be a complexity factor (ibid.).

Vosberg (2003, 308) outlines the Extraction Principle as follows:

In the case of infinitival or gerundial complement options, the infinitive will tend to be favoured in environments where a complement of the subordinate clause is extracted ... from its original position and crosses clause boundaries.

This principle is of significance with the adjective *intent*, since it licences both gerundial and infinitival complementation patterns and this is of interest when investigating the extraction environments with the tokens of *intent*.

3.3.3 The Horror Aequi Principle

The horror aequi principle is defined by Rohdenburg (2003, 205) as follows; "the horror aequi principle involves the widespread (and presumably universal) tendency to avoid the repetition of identical and adjacent grammatical elements or structures." As an example he (2003, 236) uses subsequent *to*-infinitives that would rather be evaded following this principle, which could be achieved by moving the adjacent *to*-infinitive later on in the sentence or by introducing some other

alternative construction instead. These other constructions include for example the *-ing* form and the NP complement, the latter of which is not, however, “a direct alternative to sentential complementation” but can be used to replace *to*-infinitive clause (Vosberg 2003, 320). The horror aequi principle can be observed in action when the normally rather infrequent *-ing* form is used after a verb in *to*-infinitive form, instead of the more frequently used *to*-infinitive complement, which is due to the avoidance of two subsequent *to*-infinitive constructions (ibid.) This principle is, however, weaker than the Complexity Principle introduced above, and can be undermined if there is some material located between the verb or the adjective and the complement, or if there is *not*-negation in the clause, which usually causes the *to*-infinitive to follow (Vosberg 2003, 321). The horror aequi principle is not of great significance with the analysis of adjectival predicates and I will not discuss it further here.

3.3.4 Meanings of Patterns

In the discussion of the meanings of the sentential complement patterns *to*-infinitive clause, the *-ing*-clause, *wh*-clause and *that*-clause I will concentrate on those which are relevant in the case of the adjective *intent*. I will discuss in depth the differences between the *-ing* form and the infinitive form as regards their meanings and uses as complements.

The fundamental difference in the meanings of these two patterns is that the infinitive is used to refer to hypothetical or even unreal situations whereas the *-ing* form is used to refer to situations which are either real or perceived to be real (Bolinger 1968, 126-127). As an example Bolinger (1968, 123) gives two sentences:

1. I like him to be nice to you.
2. I like his being nice to you.

The first sentence illustrates the infinitival complement and states a wish that he will be nice to you, whereas the second sentence illustrates the *-ing* form and refers to his actual behaviour (ibid., 123). Thus the second sentence states a fact, a real state of affairs, whereas the first sentence only states a hypothetical wish. Quirk et al. (1985, 1191) refer to this tendency by applying the term “potentiality” when we use *to*-infinitive and the term “performance” in the use of the *-ing*-clause, as with the *to*-infinitive there is potentiality for the action but with the *-ing* form the action is actually performed. The list of features Allerton (1988, 21) gives, quite comprehensively record the differences in the meanings of the infinitive and the *-ing* form, also known as the gerund, in particular concepts:

<u>Infinitive</u>	<u>Gerund</u>
Infrequent, intermittent, interrupted or uncompleted activity.	Regular, continuous, continuing or completed activity.
Contingent/possible event.	Event presented factually.
Specific subject.	Neutral time and place.
More verbal character	Non-specific subject.
	More nominal character.

Table 2. Infinitive versus gerund

The nominal character of the *-ing* form is due to its origin, as Fanego (2004, 5) notes, because it has gradually gained verbal properties and the originally “abstract deverbal noun of action” has been reanalysed as a verbal category. I will not discuss the subject further as it is not the focus of this thesis, but the origin of the gerund is useful in understanding its characteristics, such as the fact that prepositions that complement adjectives can be preserved with the gerund but not with the infinitive complement, as Allerton (1988, 19) states. Bolinger (1968, 127) quite accurately concludes about *-ing* forms and infinitives that on the surface level of English grammar, there are no identical constructions but “only likenesses in varying degrees.”

3.3.5 Semantic Roles

As Huang (1997, 64) notes, predicates, such as verbs and predicative adjectives, differ in what, what kind of and how many arguments they allow. Thus they differ in their Predicate-Argument Structure (PAS) as some predicates take one argument and are thus one-place predicates, some take two arguments and are thus two-place predicates and so on (ibid.). Huang (1997, 65) also remarks that these arguments play a certain role with a certain predicate and predicates hence differ in the semantic roles their arguments take, which are also known as theta roles. Cowper (1992, 48) discusses semantic relations as well and gives the following example to illustrate their importance:

1. Jennifer ate the apple.
2. The apple was eaten by Jennifer.

She observes that these sentences have different noun phrases as subjects and objects but when we study the semantic roles of the noun phrases we find that in both sentences *Jennifer* plays the role of the agent and *the apple* plays the role of the patient, which better accounts for the similarity of the meanings of the sentences (ibid.). Cowper (1992, 48-50) also gives an extensive list of the major semantic roles to which I have added in parentheses some further notions that Huang (1997, 65) makes:

1. Agent: Initiator, doer of action (or event; animate); Must be capable of volition or deliberate action.
2. Goal: Entity toward which motion takes place; Motion may be concrete or abstract.
3. Source: Entity from which motion takes place; Motion may be concrete or abstract.
4. Location: The place (concrete or abstract) where something is.
5. Experiencer: The individual who feels or perceives the event.
6. Recipient: This is a subtype of the Goal. It occurs with verbs denoting change of possession such as *give*, *donate* and *receive*.
7. Instrument: The object with which an action is performed.
8. Benefactive: The one for whose benefit the event took place.
9. Theme: Occurs only with a verb of motion or location; with a verb of motion, the theme is what moves; with a verb of location, the theme is the entity whose location is being described. (Some person or thing to whom or which an event has occurred; inanimate.)
10. Patient: An entity which undergoes an action.

11. Percept: An entity which is experienced or perceived.

A semantic role can occur in several positions in a sentence, as Cowper (1992, 50) observes, and the meaning of the predicate mainly governs the roles of the arguments. She (1992, 51) also notes that an argument can carry multiple semantic relations at the same time and it is not always easy to decide the semantic relation for each argument. But then again, Haegeman (1991, 46) also makes a notion on how the semantic roles can be assigned to arguments and he states that “each argument is assigned one and only one theta role” and that “each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument.”

4 On Corpora

4.1 Normalizing frequencies

When taking the data for the research from corpora, one needs to ensure that the results and the way of presenting results are accurate and first and foremost comparable. One way of ensuring that the results reflect the actual number of the word under examination and the word count of the text it appeared in, is to normalize the frequencies. According to Biber (1998, 263) one first takes the raw word count of the word under examination, in this case the number of occurrences of *intent*, divides this by the number of words of the whole text and multiplies the result by whatever rate is chosen as the basis for normalizing the frequency, for example the average length of the texts in the corpus.

Biber (ibid.) gives an example:

If you find 20 modal verbs in a text of 750 words and want to normalize it on the basis of 1000 words, the calculation would be conducted as follows:
 $(20 \text{ modals} / 750 \text{ words}) \times 1,000 = 27.5 \text{ modals per } 1,000 \text{ words}$

This is a useful tool, when the length of the texts varies, which happens by default when comparing texts, and we need to be able to accurately compare the results so that the text length does not play a part in the results, which would inevitably happen if we were to solely compare the raw counts. The basis for the normalization is usually chosen according to the average length of texts investigated in the corpus in order to ensure that the normed count represents the frequency accurately and in a representative way. In my thesis I will divide the number of occurrences of each pattern by the word count of the part of the corpus used and then multiply this by 1 million words.

4.2 The Corpus of Late Modern English

The original version of the corpus of Late Modern English texts was compiled by Hendrik De Smet (2005, 70) and the material comes from the Project Gutenberg and the Oxford Text Archive. The third version CLMET3 was compiled as a collaboration of Hendrik De Smet, Hans-Jürgen Diller and Jukka Tyrkkö (De Smet, 2011). Furthermore, the third version is “a principled collection of public domain texts drawn from various online archiving projects” and it contains 34.4 million words (ibid.). The corpus covers the genres from narrative fiction, narrative non-fiction, and drama to letters and treatise but has some unclassified texts as well (ibid.). The texts cover the periods between 1710 and 1920 and the corpus was compiled in a way which enhances the homogeneity of every sub-period that is the periods between 1710 -1780, 1780 -1850 and 1850 -1920 (De Smet 2005, 70). The method of compiling is represented in the Figure 1 (ibid., 71):

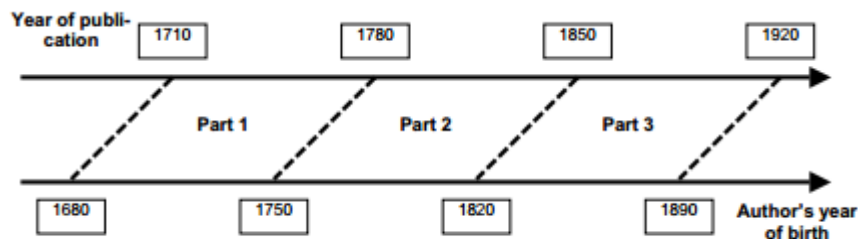


Figure 1: Corpus sub-periods

This method also increases the homogeneity between the sub-periods, enabling more accurate comparison between them. There are some characteristics of the corpus which slightly restrict its utility, such as the fact that all the authors are of British origin and speak English as their native language. Moreover, the majority of the authors in the Project Gutenberg and in the Oxford Text Archive, which were used for the original version of the corpus, are upper class men who wrote formal, literary texts (ibid.). De Smet has tried to counteract this bias by choosing non-literary texts written by female authors over literary texts written by male authors and also texts from lower registers over texts from higher registers, whenever this was possible (ibid.). In spite of these actions,

the bias remains and the literary, formal texts are precisely the type of texts that most resist language change, though the larger sample of CLMET3 further counteracts this bias (ibid., 79).

Another feature of the corpus is that the maximum number of words by single author has been restricted to 200 000 words in order to minimize the effect of "idiosyncrasies of individual authors" on the data (ibid., 71). Furthermore, the size of the third version of the corpus, approximately 34.4 million words, is large enough for our present purposes, as De Smet notes, "for the study of relatively infrequent syntactic patterns or the borderline phenomena between grammar and the lexicon" (ibid., 78). Thus the study of the complementation patterns of *intent* is exactly the area of research for which the CLMET3 is the most suitable. In my thesis I will apply all three parts of the corpus which include the years 1710 -1920. The first part contains 10.5 million words, the second 11.3 million words and the third and the largest part 12.6 million words.

4.3 The British National Corpus

The British National Corpus (hereafter BNC) is a collection of written and spoken samples of the modern British English of the late twentieth century and it consists of 100 million words, as noted by Burnard (2009). The major part, that is 90% of the texts, are from the written register but there is also some spoken language included thus 10% of the data of the BNC being from spoken register (ibid.). The BNC consists of texts such as newspapers, periodicals and journals, academic books as well as popular fiction and many more, but in this study only the imaginative prose section of the corpus will be used, as this is the section that best corresponds to the types of text in CLMET3. This part consists of all the fictional texts or texts that can be seen as literary or creative, as noted by Burnard (2007, 9), and covers approximately 13.4 million words. The imaginative text part of the corpus covers less than 25 per cent of all the texts included in the corpus.

The BNC Project was carried out by BNC Consortium, which was led by Oxford University Press, the other members being Addison-Wesley Longman and Larousse Kingfisher Chambers, academic research centres at Oxford University Computing Services, the University Centre for Computer Corpus Research on Language at Lancaster University, and the British Library's Research and Innovation Centre (Burnard, 2009). The corpus was compiled by restricting the sample size to 45 000 words from one author for written texts (*ibid.*). Texts shorter than this or texts from several authors were included in full in the corpus (*ibid.*). The imaginative texts that were included in the corpus originate from 1960 onwards, though majority of these texts were only published after 1975 (Burnard, 2007). The texts originate from a time before the year 1993, however (*ibid.*)

5 *Intent* in the CLMET3 Part 1

Now I will turn to the analysis of the actual data found in the corpora. In this section I will examine the illustrations of the adjective *intent* that were found in Part 1 of the CLMET3 in depth. The search string *intent* found 216 tokens in total in Part 1 that covers the decades between the years 1710 and 1780. 138 of these were irrelevant tokens as 138 nouns could also be found, which are not relevant to the present study. It is interesting to notice, however, that no attributive instances of the adjective *intent* could be found in the data of this period. These are not the object of this study, but they might be of interest in the future studies if this kind of use of the adjective will be found in the data from the later decades, which will be noted in the following sections.

5.2 Complementation Patterns

The following complementation patterns were found in the instances of the predicative use of the adjective *intent*:

Pattern	Raw number	Normalized frequency	Percentage
<i>on</i> + NP	29	2.76	37%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	10	0.95	13%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	0.19	3%
<i>upon</i> + NP	15	1.42	19%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	8	0.76	10%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	0.19	3%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	11	1.04	13%
zero	1	0.09	2%
Total	78	7.42	100%

Table 3. CLMET3 Part 1 Complementation patterns

The most frequent patterns to be found with the adjective *intent* are the non-sentential patterns *on* + NP with the normalized frequency of 2.76 and *upon* + NP with the frequency of 1.42, which could also be labelled under one category, *preposition* + NP. The three next common patterns are then sentential ones, *on* + *-ing*-clause appearing with the frequency of 0.95, *to*-infinitive clause appearing with the 1.04 frequency and *upon* + *-ing*-clause with the frequency of 0.76. The remaining patterns were notably less frequent, *on* + *wh*-clause and *in* + *-ing*-clause appearing only with the frequency of 0.19 and zero complement with 0.09. The pattern *in* + NP did not appear at all in the data analysed. I will discuss the non-sentential and the sentential patterns further in the following sections and then investigate the correlation of the patterns with the two senses of *intent*.

5.2.1 Non-Sentential Complements

The kind of complements that had the preposition *on* or *upon* and a noun phrase following *intent* were the most frequent of the period including years from 1710 to 1780. As noted above, the preposition

in did not, however, appear during this period at all, which is not surprising as neither the grammars nor the dictionaries mentioned this preposition to appear with the adjective *intent*, but this is noteworthy to compare with the periods to come. Similarly, the zero complement was considerably rare in the data, occurring only with 2% of the tokens:

- (1) ... ale-house, we were shewn into a little back room, where there was only a venerable old man, who sat wholly **intent** over a large book, which he was reading... (Goldsmith, *The Vicar of Wakefield*, 1766)

The notably more common use of the preposition *on* as a complement of *intent* in comparison to the preposition *upon* is an interesting finding and requires further discussion. The following illustrations, among others, were found with the pattern *on* + NP:

- (2) ... As he was walking pretty early one morning in his garden, very **intent on a book** he had in his hand, his meditations were interrupted by an unusual cry, which seemed at some dist... (Haywood, *The fortunate foundlings*, 1744)
- (3) ... Being **intent on my Departure**, I sent for Mrs. Tirrel, says I, I should be much inclined to take your James al... (Brooke, *The fool of quality*, 1765-70)
- (4) ... Happily for Aggy, the Company was so **intent on the Motions of our hero**, that Few attended to her, save Harry himself, who hear'd what she said to the ver... (Brooke, *The fool of quality*, 1765-70)
- (5) ... My lords, after having, with an intention interrupted by any foreign considerations, and a mind **intent only on the discovery of the truth**, examined every argument which has been urged on either side, I think it my d... (Johnson, *Parliamentary debates*, 1740-41)

The pattern *upon* + NP, then again, was found with the following tokens of *intent*:

- (6) ...ve no expectations of acquiring fortunes equal to their desires by any other profession, and are, therefore, **intent upon the improvement of every opportunity** which is offered them of increasing their knowledge and exalting ... (Johnson, *Parliamentary debates*, 1740-41)
- (7) ... his body might as well have taken a turn there too—so that with all the semblance of a deep school-man **intent upon the medius terminus**—my uncle Toby was in fact as ignorant of the whole lecture, and all its pros and ... (Sterne, *The life and opinions of Tristram Shandy*, 1759-67)
- (8) ... and all were so **intent upon their several topics**, that they scarce allowed themselves a small interval in viewing the desolation o... (Smollet, *The adventures of Peregrine Pickle*, 1751)
- (9) ... As for the grandson of the defunct, he is sober, sensible, worldly minded fellow, too **intent upon schemes of interest** to give in to reveries... (Smollet, *The expedition of Humphrey Clinker*, 1771)

An attempted explanation to the frequency of *on* and *upon* would be the more formal nature of the preposition *upon* in comparison to the preposition *on*, as Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543-544) observe. Thus the less formal preposition *on* would be used more commonly as informal contexts tend to be more common and the formal alternative *upon* would only be used in more formal contexts. This is the most probable explanation to the tendency of *on* to appear more frequently in the data and it is interesting to see how the frequency of the two prepositions preceding a NP will change in the future.

Another point relating to the Complexity Principle can be made as regards the two prepositions discussed. Following Rohdenburg (2003, 152) the principle states that the “bulkier element” is the more explicit one and thus appears in more complex environments. Thus the preposition *upon* would be expected to appear in the more complex environments. The data does not, however, provide enough evidence to support this claim, and in fact the illustrations providing evidence in this matter prove the opposite:

- (10) ... MRS. Beville, **on hospitable cares intent**, frequently quitted the room, to order in wine to the company below stairs, and give the necessary directions... (Griffith, *Triumvirate*, 1764)
- (11) ... course of nature, and also, because it may have been feigned by him to promote an expedition, **on which** he was **intent**, and doubted the sufficiency of his own influence to carry into execution, without the assistance of such an ... (Johnstone, *The history of Arsaces, Prince of Betlis*, 1774)
- (12) ...d to obey; and direct them to a particular end, however difficult to attain, **on which** they are themselves all **intent**!... (Johnstone, *The history of Arsaces, Prince of Betlis*, 1774)
- (13) ...when I found the lovely Isabella sitting by the Fountain, with a Book in her Hand, **on which** she seem'd very **intent**... (Chetwood, *The voyages, travels and adventures, of William Owen Gwin Vaughan*, 1736)

The illustration (10) is an instance of topicalization, as the complement “on hospitable cares” has been extracted to the beginning of the clause from its normal position after the adjective for emphasising purposes. The last three illustrations are all examples of relativization or relative extraction as the relative pronoun *which* serves the place of the complement. The adjective *intent* is located only at the end of the relative clause. Moreover, example (5) earlier was a complex sentence as it had an inserted word *only* between *intent* and its complement. Noteworthy is that in all the 5

instances of complexity the preposition *on* appears, although following Rohdenburg (1996, 151) the preposition *upon* as the more explicit element would be expected. Thus there is no evidence to support the Complexity Principle in the data of this period. Overall, Poutsma (1904, 665) states that *(up)on* + NP is the only pattern that is still used today, which would partly predict the high frequency of these two patterns, though as we can see from the other complementation patterns appearing with *intent* that this claim does not have support from the data as other complementation patterns can be found with *intent* as well.

5.2.2 Sentential Complements

The sentential complements are only the second most common entity, the patterns *on* + *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive clause being the most common ones among them. These two patterns were the third most common ones both appearing with 13% of the tokens. Here we can again compare the prepositions *on* and *upon*, as the fifth most common pattern, *upon* + *-ing*-clause with 10% is less frequent than the same pattern with the preposition *on*. The two patterns were found with the following tokens, among others:

- (14) ... Enfeebled as his constitution was, he was still **intent on improving** his time to some valuable purpose; and when his friends expostulated with him that he gave his ... (Brown, *Essays on the Characteristics*, 1751)
- (15) ...And, though these Summer Heroes, like the young Roman Nobility at the Battle of Pharsalia, were solely **intent on defending** their pretty Faces from Annoyance, yet Tommy, at the third Turn... (Brooke, *The fool of quality*, 1765-70)
- (16) ...The Parliament being prorogued, Raleigh, **intent upon planting** his new colony Virginia, set out his own fleet of seven sail for that country, under the c... (Cibber, *The lives of the poets of Great Britain and...*, 1753)
- (17) ... I should, if you were not so **intent upon reconciling** yourself to your relations... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)

Similarly to the non-sentential complements with these prepositions, here also applies the argument of *upon* being the more formal alternative and thus less frequently used. The meaning of *intent* in every individual illustration might also have an effect on the choice of the preposition which I will discuss later on in the following sections.

Surprising is the number of tokens of the *to*-infinitive pattern, as Poutsma states that this pattern is now obsolete but it still appears with 13% of the illustrations (1904, 665). The following tokens of *intent* appear with this complement:

- (18) ...Correct with spirit, eloquent with ease, **intent to reason**, or polite to please... (Pope, *An essay on man*, 1733-34)
- (19) ...have deserved it from me, I shall be less and less concerned on that score, as I see you are more and more **intent to shew** your wit at the expense of justice and compassion... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)
- (20) ...In all the sweeter ornaments of song; **intent to teach**, too careless how to please, He boasts in strength, whate'er he wants in ease... (Cibber, *The lives of the poets of Great Britain and...*, 1753)

It will be interesting to compare the occurrence of *to*-infinitive constructions in the following periods in the light of Poutsma's claim of its non-appearance. Furthermore, the Great Complement Shift would predict *to*-infinitive pattern to become less frequent while the gerund would be expected to increase in frequency in comparison, as Vosberg states (2009, 213). 26% of the patterns in the data were instances of the gerund as opposed to only 13% of the *to*-infinitive clauses. It will be interesting to see whether the tendency of the Great Complement Shift finds supporting evidence in the data of more recent decades.

When we compare the occurrence of the *to*-infinitive and the gerund, complexity also plays a role. According to Vosberg (2003, 308), the *to*-infinitive is usually preferred to the gerund, i.e. to the *-ing*-clauses, with extractions. Thus in more complex environments the *to*-infinitive would be the more explicit pattern to be used in these cases. In the data of this period the following patterns with extractions occur:

- (21) ...They had endeavoured it seems to influence my good Mrs. Norton before I came home—so **intent** are they **to carry** their point!... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)
- (22) ...at is always: for the whole family are continually ringing these changes in my ears, and are more sedulously **intent**, than I can well account for, **to get** me out of the kingdom... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)
- (23) ...prurience for fresh adventures in all things, has got so strongly into our habit and humour,—and so wholly **intent** are we **upon satisfying** the impatience of our in concupiscence that way,—that nothing but the gross and more c... (Sterne, *The life and opinions of Tristram Shandy*, 1759-67)

(24) ...Yet **intent** as he was **on establishing** my health, his care was not confined to that alone... (Johnstone, *The history of Arsaces, Prince of Betlis*, 1774)

Thus both gerund and *to*-infinitive constructions occur in complex environments, at least with extractions. The extractions in illustrations (21) and (23) appear due to the word *so* being located in front of *intent*, from which the inversion of the subject and the verb follow, as can be seen in these examples. With these examples, following Postal (1994, 160), I use the term *extraction* in a broader sense than how Vosberg (2003, 307) describes it, as here the head of the adjective phrase itself has been moved instead of the complement. When discussing extractions to left Postal (1994, 160) states that the common view taken on extractions is too narrow and a less restricting view on extracting would be justified as it offers more means to analyse the real instances of extractions. This is the view I will be following in my thesis and I will refer to the patterns in examples (21) and (23) as extractions as well.

In example (22) the comparison with *more* leads to the phrase starting with *than* to be located between *intent* and the complement, which Huang calls a comparative extraction (1997, 129). The last example (24) is an instance of topicalization as *intent* is extracted from its normal position after the verb to the beginning of the sentence, when we look at extractions from the boarder description.

No claims for or against Vosberg's (2003, 308) proposition can be made on account of the equal number of the gerund and the *to*-infinitive complements with these extractions. More specifically, the pattern *to*-infinitive appeared twice in the data and the patterns *on* + *-ing*-clause and *upon* + *-ing*-clause both appeared once in the total of 4 non-sentential sentences containing complexity. Moreover, from such a small sample a credible conclusion could not be made in any case. From the data, both of the sentential complements seem to be used in the environments where

extractions appear. Furthermore, both the prepositions *on* and *upon* appeared among these complex sentences, which does not provide proof for or against Rohdenburg's Complexity Principle (2003, 152). It will be interesting to see whether the following decades offer proof for Vosberg's (2003, 308) or Rohdenburg's (2003, 152) claims, however.

The two rarest sentential complements were *on* + *wh*-clause and *in* + *-ing*-clause, both appearing only with 3% of the tokens:

- (25) ...While the Few who preferred Instruction were **intent in perusing** the Fair who was covered with Knowledge... (Brooke, *The fool of quality*, 1765-70)
- (26) ...and if you can recollect the precise look and air of a man's face **intent in finding** out a riddle—it threw Gastripheres's into that form... (Sterne, *The life and opinions of Tristram Shandy*, 1759-67)
- (27) ...I shall like to send you Prussian journals, but am much more **intent on what relates to your brother**... (Walpole, *Letters*, 1717)
- (28) ...She was within two Paces of me before she saw me, she was so **intent on what she was about**, and when her Eyes encounter'd mine, she started back, as though she had beheld something... (Chetwood, *The voyages, travels and adventures, of William Owen Gwin Vaughan*, 1736)

In the following periods, it will be of interest to see whether these rarest complementation patterns disappear totally, which I would expect to happen, except perhaps in some archaic usages of single authors.

5.3 Patterns and Senses

I analysed, furthermore, with which of the two senses of *intent* the complementation patterns appear in the data collected from CLMET3 Part 1. The two senses that I derived from all the senses of the dictionaries were as follows:

1. Showing strong interest and attention.
2. Determined to do something.

The frequencies with which the patterns occurred with the two senses can be best illustrated in Table 4:

Pattern	Raw number of Sense1	Percentage of Sense1	Raw number of Sense2	Percentage of Sense2
<i>on</i> + NP	25	32%	4	5%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	2%	8	10%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	2%	0	0%
<i>upon</i> + NP	13	16%	2	2%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	2%	6	7%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0%	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	2%	0	0%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	2	2%	9	11%
zero	1	1%	0	0%
Total	49	62%	29	37%

Table 4. CLMET3 Part 1 Senses and complementation patterns

Some interesting tendencies can be observed in the data between the two senses, even though one must bear in mind that the sample here is rather small and no large scale generalizations can be derived from such a small sample. We can, bearing this in mind, clearly observe that Sense 1 was more often represented in the data occurring with 62% of the tokens, whereas Sense 2 only occurred with 29% of the tokens. Examples of tokens that appear with Sense 1 can be seen underneath:

(29) ... I was excessively disordered—every body's eyes more and more **intent upon us**... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)

(30) ... As he was walking pretty early one morning in his garden, very **intent on a book** he had in his hand, his meditations were interrupted by an unusual cry... (Haywood, *The fortunate foundlings*, 1744)

With examples above we can see that the subject, most often an animate one, is showing great interest and attention to the object of their interest. Especially in example (30) we can clearly see that the

subject is showing most earnest interest on the book in his hands and thus barely notices anything else happening around him. An illustration of Sense 2, then again, can be seen underneath:

- (31) ... Being then **intent on my Departure**, I sent for Mrs. Tirrel... (Hume, *Dialogues concerning natural religion*, 1779)

With Sense 2 the subject of the clause is determined to achieve some more abstract goal, in the example above on his or her departure and not necessarily on any individual and concrete object, as is usual with Sense 1. Probably partly explained by this fact, the pattern with both the prepositions *on* and *upon* preceding a NP was notably more common with Sense 1, as the two patterns occurred with Sense 1 in 48% of the cases, while they appeared with Sense 2 only in 7% of the cases. The illustrations (29) and (30) serve as examples of Sense 1 appearing with these two patterns and the illustration (31) as an example of Sense 2 occurring with the pattern *on* + NP. Another tendency can be seen when we look into the prepositions *on* and *upon* preceding the *-ing*-clause. There is a slight tendency for these patterns to occur with the Sense 2, since they occur with the aforementioned in 17% of the illustrations but with Sense 1 only in 5 % of them. Examples (14) and (17) earlier serve as illustrations of the Sense 2 appearing with the patterns *on* + *-ing*-clause and *upon* + *-ing*-clause. A similar kind of subtle tendency can be seen with *to*-infinitive, as it appears with Sense 2 in 11% of the tokens and with Sense 1 only in 2% of the cases. An example of the first one, i.e. Sense 1, and of the second one, i.e. Sense 2, occurring with this pattern can be found underneath:

- (32) ... verse, happily to steer From gay, from lively to severe; Correct with spirit, eloquent with ease, **intent to reason**, or polite to please... (Pope, *An essay on man*, 1733-34)

- (33) ... They had endeavoured it seems to influence my good Mrs. Norton before I came home—so **intent** are they **to carry** their point! And her opinion not being to their liking, she has been told that she would... (Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1748)

Example (33) shows the meaning of Sense 2 as the object of the subject is a more abstract goal gained through some actions not mentioned specifically, while in example (32) the object of interest is

specifically stated to be “to reason”, to which the subject is showing great attention and interest. The remaining patterns are so infrequent that it is not credible to derive any tendencies from them. It is, in conclusion, of interest to investigate how the tendencies described above appear in the following periods to provide further evidence for or against the tendencies found here.

6 Intent in the CLMET3 Part 2

In this section I will examine the instances of adjective *intent* that were found in Part 2 of the CLMET3 during the decades between 1780 and 1850. The search string *intent* found 159 tokens in total in Part 2 of CLMET3. 78 of these were irrelevant tokens as 4 attributive adjectives and 74 nouns could also be found among the predicative adjectives. Thus there are some, though a small number of attributive adjectives emerging already. In the following sections I will discuss the non-sentential and the sentential patterns separately after representing the overall results and, moreover, illustrate the different complex environments appearing in the data of Part 2. Furthermore, I will investigate the correlation of the complementation patterns with the two senses of *intent*.

6.2 Complementation Patterns

The following complementation patterns could be found in the data to occur with *intent*:

Pattern	Raw number	Normalized frequency	Percentage
<i>on</i> + NP	32	2.83	28%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	20	1.76	17%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	0.17	2%
<i>upon</i> + NP	35	3.09	31%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	7	0.62	6%
<i>in</i> + NP	4	0.35	4%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	1	0.09	1%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	7	0.62	6%
Zero	5	0.44	5%
Total	113	7.16	100%

Table 5. CLMET3 Part 2 Complementation patterns

Contrary to the CLMET3 Part 1, the most common pattern to appear with the adjective *intent* was *upon* + NP, appearing with the frequency of 3.09 and thus becoming significantly more common than the similar pattern with the preposition *on*. The second most common pattern with the frequency of

2.83 was indeed the pattern *on* + NP but losing the first position it held in Part 1. The third most common pattern, however, was *on* + *-ing*-clause, as it was also in the first part, but appearing now with the frequency of 1.76. Moreover, the pattern with the preposition *upon* following an *-ing*-clause was to be found on the fourth place together with *to*-infinitive, both occurring with the frequency of 0.62. Surprisingly, the zero complement was the fifth most common pattern appearing with the frequency of 0.44 and equally unexpectedly compared to the results of Part 1, the pattern *in* + NP occurred with 0.35 frequency. The two least common patterns, then again, followed the tendency that was to be observed in Part 1 as well, *on* + *wh*-clause occurring with 2% and *in* + *-ing*-clause with 1% of the tokens. I will discuss the results further in the following sections.

6.2.1 Non-Sentential Complements

The most common pattern, *upon* + NP, enhanced its position significantly during the years 1780-1850 when compared to the frequency it had in Part 1. Thus a notable change can be observed between the two patterns where a preposition is preceding a NP, that is between *on* + NP and *upon* + NP. The former was considerably more common in Part 1, appearing with 37% of the tokens whereas the latter occurred only with 19% percent of them. During the years of Part 2, however, *upon* + NP became radically more frequent occurring with 35 % of the tokens and thus the preposition *upon* became much more common in comparison to the less formal alternative *on*, which appeared with 28% of them. This is rather a surprising finding as the less formal alternative would be expected to be used in normal cases that do not involve formality. This would provide evidence to reject Huddleston and Pullum's (2002, 543-544) observation that the less formal preposition *on* would be used more commonly as informal contexts tend to be more common and the formal alternative *upon* would only occur in more formal contexts thus being less common. Similarly, the more formal alternative would be expected to become less common over the years as well, having a more restricted context to occur

in, which obviously was not the case when we look at the evidence from the data. Thus Huddleston and Pullum's (ibid.) tendency of the less formal alternative to appear more often was not supported by the data of the second part of CLMET3.

Complexity might be one factor taken to explain the different occurrences of the more explicit alternative with *upon* and the less explicit one with *on*. As Rohdenburg (2003, 205) states the more explicit alternative would not only be expected to appear more commonly but also survive longer in more complex environments. Thus we might expect the pattern *upon* + NP to be more common with complex sentences. Of all the 12 sentences that contained complexity factors 7 contained a non-sentential pattern and only one, however, appeared with the pattern *upon* + NP, this one being an instance of relativization:

- (34) ... I took my station in a manner most favourable to the object **upon which** my mind was **intent**... (Godwin, *The Adventure of Caleb Williams*, 1794)

This is noteworthy especially as the frequency of the pattern *upon* + NP was higher than the one of the pattern *on* + NP, and still the number of the occurrences of the preposition *upon* in complex environments remains small. In comparison, 6 illustration of the pattern *on* + NP containing a complexity factor could be found, 4 of which can be seen below:

- (35) ... did come, as soon as he was fairly engaged with a book, **on which**, while he sat by the fire he seemed quite **intent**, MR. Barnard stole round to the apartment where the King was... (Cary, *Lives of English Poets*, 1846)

- (36) ... he never once thinks of them, he is absorbed in the pursuit of a higher object; he is **intent**, not **on the means**, but the end; he is taken up, not with the difficulties, but with the triumph over them... (Hazlitt, *Table-Talk: Essays on Men and Manners*, 1821-22)

- (37) ... having placed it satisfactorily in a tin candlestick, began to look further about her, **on hospitable thoughts intent**... (Gaskell, *Mary Barton*, 1848)

- (38) ...Nearer yet, and the little Midshipman himself was seen upon his post, **intent** as ever **on his observations**... (Dickens, *Bombey and Son*, 1844)

In total, there were 3 instances of relativization, of which (35) serves as an example, one topicalization (37), one instance of *not*-negation (36) where the negation word *not* has been inserted between *intent* and its complement, and two instances of insertions between *intent* and its complement, as in example (38). This would thus seem to oppose Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) claim that the more explicit alternative would be expected to appear in more complex environments.

Noteworthy is the more common representation of the zero complement in the data of the CMLET3 Part 2. It appeared with 5% of the tokens and when compared to the 2% occurrence during the years 1710-1780 it seems that the pattern is becoming more frequent, being on the fifth place in the data of Part 2. Similarly, the pattern *in* + NP that was non-existent in Part 1, appeared with 4% of the tokens in Part 2. Though the number of tokens was not extensive, the increase was still significant as the pattern appeared first time in the data during this period. Examples (39) and (40) illustrate the patterns and can be found underneath:

(39) ... description of these two divisions of human life, inasmuch as the latter is often not less earnest and **intent in its pursuits** than the former... (Godwin, *Thoughts on Men*, 1831)

(40) ... at which he afterwards shoots with horse-chestnuts, brought from Stevenson on purpose; and Edward equally **intent** over the "Lake of Killarney,"... (Austen, *Letters to Her Sister*, 1796-1817)

6.2.2 Sentential Complements

The frequency of the most common sentential pattern in Part 1, *on* + *-ing*-clause, increased during Part 2 from 0.95 to 1.76, reclaiming its position on the third place when we look at the sentential and the non-sentential patterns together. On the fourth place are the patterns *upon* + *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive, both appearing with 6% of the tokens of *intent*. In Part 1, however, *to*-infinitive was the second most common sentential pattern over *upon* + *-ing*-clause and thus the latter became slightly more common in Part 2. The change could be explained by the Great Complement Shift which

Vosberg (2009, 213) refers to explaining that especially since late Middle English there has been a noticeable tendency of the gerund to appear with heads that usually select *to*-infinitive as their complement. In the current data is from Late Modern English and in the data the change has been rather slow, but it nevertheless supports the tendency noted by Vosberg (*ibid.*). It remains to be seen whether more recent data supports this tendency and the data from CLMET3 Part 1 and 2. Then again, the correlation between the patterns with a preposition and an *-ing*-clause remained the same as in Part 1, *on* + *-ing*-clause being significantly more common (17%) than the more formal alternative *upon* + *-ing*-clause (6%):

(40) ... He appears **intent** only **on conveying** to others the result of his own inquiries and reflections on the most important topics, ... (Cary, *Lives of English Poets*, 1846)

(41) ... but I suspect he is more **intent upon startling** himself with his electrical experiments in morals and philosophy... (Hazlitt, *Table-Talk: Essays on Men and Manners*, 1821-22)

The extremely rare patterns in Part 1, *on* + *wh*-clause and *in* + *-ing*-clause, became even less frequent in Part 2, the first one featuring in 2% of the illustrations and the latter only in 1% of them. This might be explained by the increase in the number of zero complements of the period. Example (42) illustrates the pattern *in* + *-ing*-clause while (43) is an example of *on* + *-wh*-clause.

(42) ... He was more **intent in balancing** the period, than in developing the thought or image that present to his mind... (Cary, *Lives of English Poets*, 1846)

(43) ... she could not keep herself from seeing that Elinor changed colour, attended with agitation, and was too **intent on what he said** to pursue her employment... (Austen, *Sense and Sensibility*, 1811)

Complexity factors could be found with sentential complements as well. Two instances of *to*-infinitive complements could be found in complex environments, where an item had been inserted between *intent* and the complement, as in examples (46) and (47). Moreover, three instances of the pattern *preposition* + *-ing*-clause occurred, with the prepositions *on* and *in* appearing here, as

can be seen in examples (40), (44) and (45). In the two latter cases a subordinate clause was inserted between *intent* and the complement and a construction with *so + intent* followed by inverted word order of the subject and the verb, as in (45). Example (40) earlier illustrates an instance of insertion between the adjective and its complement. The remaining examples of the complex sentences are shown below:

(44) ...Quite naturally that this would be the course adopted, unless the compiler were, like yourself, **intent**, as his first and highest obligation, **on doing** faithful homage to truth, virtue, and religion.. (Cottle, *Reminiscence of Samuel Taylor Coleridge*, 1847)

(45) ... when he came up to me, I fixed my eye upon him with a scrutinizing glance, and so **intent** was I **in endeavouring** to trace if possible his thoughts, that I actually forgot to offer him the accustomed ... (Hunt, *Memoires of Henry Hunt*, 1820-2)

(46) ... groan audibly that a tyrannous Mayor and Sieur Motier harrow them with the sharp tribul of Law, **intent** apparently **to suppress** them by tribulation... (Carlyle, *The French Revolution*, 1837)

(47) ... labours fair Josephine the widow Beauharnais, though in straitened circumstances: **intent**, both of them, **to blandish** down the grimness of Republican austerity, and recivilise mankind... (Carlyle, *The French Revolution*, 1837)

These sentential instances of complexity do not show evidence to support the Complexity Principle, but it is noteworthy to observe that one of the patterns to appear in a complex environment is the *in + -ing*-clause that appeared only once in the data. From the total of 12 complex sentences 5 were instances of sentential complements, two of them being *to*-infinitive clauses, 2 of them *on + -ing*-clauses and the last one being *in + ing*-clause. This might serve as evidence to say that these kind of disappearing and rare constructions survive longer in complex environments, where a more explicit alternative is usually chosen instead of the possibly more common one. Thus the data provides evidence to Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) claim that the more explicit alternatives first originate, and survive longer in these kind of complex contexts.

6.3 Patterns and Senses

In this section I will turn to investigate how the two different senses of *intent* correlate with the patterns during the period of 1780-1850 and compare the results with the results from CLMET3 Part 1 to see if they prove similar tendencies. The correlation between the two senses can be seen in Table 6 underneath:

Pattern	Raw number of Sense1	Percentage of Sense1	Raw number of Sense2	Percentage of Sense2
<i>on</i> + NP	26	23%	6	5%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	7	6%	13	12%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	2%	0	0%
<i>upon</i> + NP	33	29%	2	2%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	0	0%	7	6%
<i>in</i> + NP	3	3%	1	1%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	0	0%	1	1%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	0	0%	7	6%
zero	3	3%	2	2%
Total	74	65%	39	35%

Table 6. CLMET3 Part 2 Senses and complementation patterns

The data of Part 2 seems to provide further evidence to support the tendencies that were to be seen in Part 1 as well. Sense 1 pertains to be the more common one featuring with 65% of the instances of *intent* whereas Sense 2 only appears with 35% of them. The meanings of the two senses presented in the Section 2 can be found underneath for the ease of reference:

1. Showing strong interest and attention.
2. Determined to do something.

The tendencies observed in Part 1 might be taken to explain this phenomenon, as Sense 1 is in general the most common sense in the data and seem to feature with the non-sentential prepositional complements, thus explaining the higher frequency of these patterns *on* + PN, *upon* + NP and *in* + NP. The non-sentential prepositional complementation patterns appear with Sense 1 in 54% of the

cases, whereas these patterns appear with Sense 2 only in 8% of all the tokens, when we consider all the instances of the prepositions *in*, *on* and *upon* preceding a NP. Examples of those three patterns can be seen underneath, appearing with Sense 1 in examples (48), (49) and (50) and with Sense 2 in (51) and (52):

(48) ... descriptions of these two divisions of human life, inasmuch as the latter is often not less earnest and **intent in its pursuits** than the former... (Godwin, *Thoughts on Man*, 1841)

(49) ... and, above all, she is anxiously **intent on the care** of the finery that she carries with her, which is more than ever a part of herself... (Wollstonecraft, *Vindication of the right of women*, 1798)

(50) ... and could not be prevailed upon to remove even as far as Naples. The lady was **intent upon preparations** for her birthday, which was to be celebrated in a few days with great magnificence... (Edgeworth, *The Parent's Assistant, or Stories for Children*, 1796-1801)

(51) ... But it may be added, that the great majority of those who are **intent on the schemes** for enlightening and reforming mankind, are entertaining a confident hope of the approach... (Foster, *An Essay on the Evils of General Ignorance*, 1821)

(52) ... rising row upon row, and swarming with human beings, from fifteen to eighteen thousand in number, **intent upon no fictitious representation**-no tragedy of the stage-but the actual victory or defeat... (Bulwer-Lytton, *The last Days of Pompeii*, 1834)

In examples (48), (49) and (50) the subject of the clause is showing great interest in the matter at hand, the lady in example (50) being so “intent upon preparations” that she could not spare attention to any other matter at all. Thus the object of interest and attention can be seen in the sentence and are somewhat concrete, whereas especially in example (51) of Sense 2 the object of interest is some greater “scheme for enlightening and reforming mankind” but is not stated more specifically rather being an object of the subject’s determination. To further the analysis of the relation between the two senses and the patterns, a deeper examination of the two senses might be to the purpose. The tendency of Sense 1, which bears the meaning “showing strong interest and attention”, to appear with non-sentential prepositional complements and especially the presence of a NP with these complements might be the key to the explanation. The action of showing strong interest and attention seems to

require an actual and often also a concrete object, for example in the sentence “Catherine was too intent on his fingers to notice his face” (Brontë, *Wuthering Heights*, 1847), which can best be expressed with a noun phrase as object. Sense 2, “determined to do something”, then again, does not take a noun phrase object in the usual case, as Sense 2 appeared in Part 2 with the patterns *preposition* + NP only in 8% of the instances of *intent* and with Sense 1 in 55% of them. Sense 2 expresses action and this can then best be expressed with a gerund, i.e. with an *-ing*-clause, which is a sentential complement. Thus the action-related meaning of Sense 2 can usually better be and most commonly is expressed with the *-ing*-clause, as in example (54). It can naturally, though rather rarely, appear with Sense 1, as in example (53). Sense 2 appeared with 25% of the sentential complements, as opposed to only 9% of the sentential complements occurring with Sense 1. Both examples can be found underneath:

(53) ... when roused by the flutter and chirp of the sparrows, and the gleeful twitter of the swallows-all **intent upon feeding** their young, and full of life and joy in their own little frames... (Brontë, *The sworde of peace*, 1848)

(54) ... but I could see that their mind, if not her heart, was fixed upon him still, and that she was **intent upon obtaining** another interview... (Brontë, *Agnes Grey*, 1847)

Here again, example (53) illustrates Sense 1 and the object of interest can be clearly understood from the context being something rather concrete, while in example (54) the object of interest is a more abstract goal but the means how to achieve it are not clearly stated and remain the object of determination.

To-infinitive clause appeared exclusively in Sense 2 during the years 1780-1850 and there seems to be a tendency of the sentential complements with verbal characteristics to appear with this sense in general. The data from the first two parts of CLMET3 have provided evidence to support

these tendencies mentioned but it remains to be seen whether the data of the third part and from the BNC prove this as well.

7 *Intent* in the CLMET3 Part 3

Next I will turn to investigate the tokens of adjective *intent* that were found during the years 1850-1920 in Part 3 of the CLMET3. The search string *intent* found 110 tokens in total. 36 of these were irrelevant tokens as 33 nouns and 3 attributive adjectives could be found among the predicative adjectives, which are not relevant to the present study. Thus the attributive adjectives among the instances of *intent* still persist to exist, as opposed to the period 1710-1780 when there were no instances of this attributive type. In the following sections I will discuss further the presence of the different non-sentential and sentential complementation patterns and the complexity factors appearing in the data after presenting the overall frequencies of all the patterns. Then I will turn to the correlation of the complementation patterns with the two senses of *intent*.

7.2 Complementation Patterns

The following complementation patterns were found in the instances of the predicative use of the adjective *intent*:

Pattern	Raw number	Normalized frequency	Percentage
<i>on</i> + NP	27	2.14	36%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	14	1.11	20%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	3	0.24	4%
<i>upon</i> + NP	12	0.95	16%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	6	0.48	8%
<i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	1	0.08	1%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	1	0.08	1%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	2	0.16	3%
zero	8	0.63	11%
Total	74	5.87	100%

Table 7. CLMET3 Part 3 Complementation patterns

The first place of the most common complementation pattern changed again as in Part 3 the pattern *on* + NP was the most common one appearing with the frequency of 2.14 and reclaiming the first place it had in Part 1 but then lost it to *upon* + NP in Part 2. The pattern *upon* + NP dropped all the way to the third place in the data, appearing with the frequency of 0.95 when the frequency in Part 3 was 3.09. The second most common pattern showed an interesting change in the relation of the two patterns, as this is the first time a sentential pattern took the second place over one of the two non-sentential prepositional complements. Thus the *on* + *-ing*-clause occurred with the frequency of 1.11, which is the highest found in the data of CLMET3 among all the parts for this pattern. Another interesting change was to find the zero complement on the fourth place with the frequency of 0.63, when the pattern had been among the least frequent ones in Part 1 and raised to the fifth place in Part 2 still only with the frequency of 0.44.

The frequency of the *upon* + *-ing*-clause dropped to 0.48, whereas the complementation pattern *on* + *wh*-clause became more common with the frequency of 0.24. The *to*-infinitive clause, however, dropped in the ranking radically, first from the third place in Part 1 to the fourth place in Part 2, and then to the seventh place in Part 3 with the frequency of 0.16. The *in* + *-ing*-clause remained as infrequent as before with 0.08 frequency. The pattern *in* + NP did not, however, appear in the data at all during the years 1850-1920.

Interestingly, a new pattern emerged that did not appear once in the data of the previous periods. This is the pattern with *upon* + *wh*-clause, with the frequency of 0.08, and I will discuss the emergence further in the section of sentential patterns after investigating the non-sentential complements in detail.

7.2.1 Non-Sentential Complements

It was rather surprising to discern the frequency of *on* + NP to increase again to appear with 36% of the tokens, when *upon* + NP only occurred with 16% of them. This is, however, in line with the fact that *on* + NP is the less formal alternative and would thus be expected to be the more common one as well, which was not the case in Part 2, however. The data did still provide the similar kind of results when investigating the sentences with complexity factors as could be seen in Part 2, that is to say that the *on* + NP occurred more often in complex environments than did the pattern *upon* + NP. The former pattern occurred in 5 of all the 9 patterns involving complexity as in examples (55), (56) and (57), whereas the latter pattern in only 1 of them, example (58) illustrating this:

(55) ... So **intent** was he **on his bold** scheme that, in the summer of 1843, he handed to the Lancaster Intelligencer a ... (Bacon, *The Dominion of the Air*, 1902)

(56) ... The signalling experiments **on which** we were **intent** could not be carried in I such weather ... (Bacon, *The Dominion of the Air*, 1902)

(57) Margaret was convinced that they had not been married at all, and that the Norman church had been **intent** all the time **on other business**... (Foster, *Howards End*, 1910)

(58) ... About her, all unheeded, is a wonderful life **that** she would be **intent upon** but for this precious training of her mind... (Wells, *Mankind in the Making*, 1903)

Three of the complexity factors were instances of the pattern *so* + *intent* followed by inverted subject and verb that are located between *intent* and the complement, as in example (55). Moreover, two of the instances were a case of relativization, as in examples (56) and (58). Example (57) then represents an insertion located between *intent* and the complement, of which there was only one instance to be found. In conclusion, the data does not support Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) claim that the more explicit alternative would be used in more complex environments.

When we turn our attention to the significantly higher frequency of zero complements, a clear change in the complementation of *intent* can be observed. When the adjective formerly only

appeared with a complement, thus a complement being to a large extent obligatory with *intent*, the adjective can be seen to occur also without a complement in 11% of the instances during the years 1850-1920. As noted above, the frequency of *intent* appearing without a complement was only 0.09 in Part 1, but rose to 0.44 in Part 2 and continued to increase in frequency during Part 3, as it appeared with 0.63 frequency already. The change can be seen more radically in the relative frequencies when compared with the frequencies of other complements, as in Part 1 it occurred only with 2%, in Part 2 with 5 %, but in Part 3 already with 11% of all the tokens of *intent*. The pattern *in* + NP, then again, did not appear during this period at all, and it remains to be seen, whether the pattern only appeared in Part 2 and will not continue to do so afterwards and also whether the tendency of zero complement to become more frequent continues in its increasing path. An example of the zero complement can be seen below:

(59) ... She would sit, staring in front of her, her chin on her hand, like a little Norse spirit, grim and **intent**, while all around in the electric light, then just installed... (Gaisworthy, *The Man of Property*, 1903)

7.2.2 Sentential Complements

An interesting development to be observed in the data of Part 3 was the rise of a sentential pattern, *on* + *-ing*-clause, to the position of the second most common complementation pattern over *upon* + NP. This was the first time to see a sentential pattern to appear among the two most common patterns, although the overall frequency of the pattern itself did not increase, being 1.11 in the data. The pattern *upon* + *-ing*-clause, however, was left to the fifth place in the years 1850-1920 with the frequency of 0.48. As with the non-sentential complements with these prepositions, *on* being the less formal alternative it is quite logical to find it as the more common alternative as well. The instances of complexity with sentential complements do not provide enough data to discuss whether the Complexity Principle plays a role here, as three examples of complexity could be found in the data,

that is (60) with the pattern *in* + *-ing*-clause, (61) with *upon* + *wh*-clause and (62) with *on* + *wh*-clause, among all the 9 complex sentences:

(60) ... So **intent** was I **in watching** this scene, that I hardly saw a flying figure in a light grey suit... (Carroll, *Sylvie and Bruno*, 1889)

(61) ... **What** were they so **intent upon** in me? He inquired ... (Hardy, *The Pair of Blue Eyes*, 1873)

(62) ... **What** they were **intent on** was, indeed, the book of books, the “golden” book of that day, a gift to Flavian... (Pater, *Marius the Epicurean*, 1885)

The last two examples, (61) and (62) involve *wh*-movement, whereas example (60) is a case of the pattern *so* + *intent* followed by inverted subject and verb order, of which examples could also be seen among the non-sentential complements. A new pattern, *upon* + *wh*-clause, was found first time used in a text that originated in year 1873 and the pattern occurred in an environment that contains a complexity factor which in this case is exactly the *wh*-word starting a *wh*-question, as can be seen in example (61) above. Hitherto the *wh*-word had always occurred with the preposition *on* and this is the first instance of it following the preposition *upon*. The occurrence of a more explicit word or phrase in a complex environment does support the Complexity Principle as stated by Rohdenburg (2003, 152), however, and thus the preposition *upon* would be more likely to be expected to appear in such an environment, as stated earlier already. One instance of a pattern does not prove much, as this can be also analysed as a whim of a single author and thus it remains to be seen whether this is an emergence of a new pattern or simply an anomaly of one author.

On + *wh*-clause, then again, remained rather infrequent in the data but increased slightly in frequency from 0.17 in Part 2 to the frequency of 0.24 in Part 3. As from example (62) can be seen, one of the three instances of this rare pattern occurred in a complex environment and could thus provide evidence for Rohdenburg’s (2003, 205) claim that rare patterns survive longer in these kind

of environments. Similarly, the only instance of the pattern *in* + *-ing*-clause also appeared in a complex sentence as can be seen from example (60), which is further proof for this claim.

An interesting observation is, however, continuation of *to*-infinitive clause to decrease in frequency, as it was left to the third least frequent place with the frequency of 0.16. The two instances of *to*-infinitive can be examined in examples (63) and (64):

(63) ... and strange sounds came from the gloomy depths of the forest, sounds which might be well set an unaccustomed ear **intent to catch** their meaning... (Berbner, *The Brown Mask*, 1910)

(64) ... The Fire King set spurs to the steed he bestrode, **Intent to mix** pleasure with profit... (Unknown, *Punch*, Vol. 99, 1890)

As noted above, the pattern already dropped in frequency first from the third place in Part 1 (frequency 1.04) to the fourth place in Part 2 (frequency 0.62), and then to the seventh place in Part 3 (frequency 0.16). The decrease of the frequency of *to*-infinitive in the data would provide evidence to support the Great Complement Shift, i.e. the tendency of the *to*-infinitive to become less common in comparison to the increasing frequency of the gerund, as Vosberg (2003, 213) notes. The tendency seems, indeed, to be of this pattern to become less and less frequent and it will be interesting to observe whether the pattern ceases to be used at all with *intent* in the more recent years.

7.3 Patterns and Senses

In this section I will examine how the two senses of *intent* correlate with the patterns during the years 1850-1920 and compare the results with the results from Part 1 and Part 2 to see if they provide proof of similar tendencies noted with these earlier parts. The correlation between the two senses with the patterns can be best illustrated in Table 8 underneath:

Pattern	Raw number of Sense1	Percentage of Sense1	Raw number of Sense2	Percentage of Sense2
<i>on</i> + NP	21	28%	6	8%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	3%	12	16%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	1	1%	2	3%
<i>upon</i> + NP	9	12%	3	4%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	3%	4	5%
<i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	1	1%	0	0%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0%	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	1	1%	0	0%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	1	1%	1	1%
zero	6	8%	2	3%
Total	44	59%	30	41%

Table 8. CLMET3 Part 3 Senses and complementation patterns

The data does show the similar kind of tendencies of the non-sentential complements *on* + NP and *upon* + NP to appear with Sense 1, i.e. “showing strong interest and attention”, as 40% of the instances of these two patterns appeared in this first sense, as in examples (65) and (66). In comparison, only 12% of the instances of *on* + NP and *upon* + NP appeared in Sense 2, as in examples (67) and (68):

(65) ... Tom, **intent on a fish** which had risen at him twice, answered only with a grunt... (Hughes, *Tom Brown's Schooldays*, 1857)

(66) ... Many of the finest tropical butterflies have this habit, and they are generally so **intent upon their meal** that they can easily be reached and captured... (Wallace, *The Malay archipelago*, 1869)

(67) ... Where young and old, **intent on pleasure**, throng, And half man's life is holiday and song? ... (Ainger, *Crabbe*, 1903)

(68) ... Those who came from London were escaping, but those going north were **intent upon awful business** in the sinister metropolis... (Blackwood, *The Extra Day*, 1915)

The difference in the meaning can be seen between examples (65), (66) and examples (67), (68) as in the former ones appearing with Sense 1 the subject's full attention is on the object of interest, on "the fish" and "their meal". Moreover, the object of interest in these cases is something concrete that can be measured, while in the latter two examples of Sense 2 the goal and object of interest remains rather abstract and the means of getting to this goal are not clearly stated in the context. Most of the patterns appeared, again, in Sense 1, as the percentage was 59% against the 41% that appeared with Sense 2. The difference in the relative frequency is not, however, as large as in the previous parts, which could be explained by the significant decrease of the frequency of the prepositional pattern *upon* + NP in the data, from 3.09 to 0.95, especially when comparing to the change of other non-sentential and sentential patterns, which were not nearly as significant. Thus the sentential pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause became relatively more frequent in comparison, influencing also the frequency of all the sentential patterns. The overall frequency of Sense 2 in the data to cover 41% of the tokens, when the percentage was 37% in Part 1 and 35% in Part 2. Examples (69) and (70) represent the sentential complements in Sense 1 and examples (71) and (72) in Sense 2:

(69) ...the men passing between the village and the beach at full speed, with basketfuls of yams, and too **intent on getting** the kiram kelumai (iron axes) to think of anything else... (Unknown, *Chambers's Edinburg journal*, n.418-462, 1852)

(70) ... "On tiptoe just at dawn," remarked Judy casually, following her own train of thought, and **intent upon chasing** a slippery poached egg round and round her plate at the same time... (Blackwood, *The Extra Day*, 1915)

(71) ... At first he seemed only **intent on proving** to her that he had not really been afraid of the highwayman on Burford Heath, not on his own... (Brebner, *The Brown Mask*, 1910)

(72) ... some of which are related in the ballads respecting him; what when, in 1323, the king was **intent upon freeing** his forests from such marauders, he fell into the king's power... (Unknown, *Chambers's Edinburg journal*, n. 418-462, 1852)

In the first two examples again the subject is so intent on the object that he or she cannot spare their attention for anything else, as in “too intent on getting the kiram kelumai (iron axes) to think of anything else” and the object of interest is clearly stated in the context. In the latter two examples, then again, the means of achieving the goal, such as “proving to her that he had not really been afraid” and “upon freeing his forests from such marauders”, are not clearly stated but the subject nevertheless remains determined in achieving them and the emphasis remains on action, not on a concrete object. The similar kind of tendency as in Parts 1 and 2 cannot, however, be concluded of the pattern *to*-infinitive, mainly because the pattern has become so infrequent in general that the sample remains too small to make generalizing conclusions. Moreover, the pattern appeared once with both senses, as can be seen in examples (63) and (64) under Section 7.2.2, the former appearing in Sense 1 and the latter with Sense 2. The elevated frequency of the zero complement, however, does make it possible to see a nascent tendency of it to appear with Sense 1, in 6 of the 8 instances, but here I have to concede that in the case of zero complement the absence of the complement makes it even more difficult to analyse the sense of the adjective and thus the categorization remains rather difficult. Therefore I will not state this as a concluded tendency of the zero complement to appear with Sense 1, but leave it to be seen whether the data in BNC provides more evidence to draw more general conclusions.

In conclusion, the claims made according to the data in Part 1 and 2 that the non-sentential prepositional complements provide an actual object of interest or attention and thus are most commonly used in Sense 1 of *intent* can be observed to have proof also in the data of the years 1850-1920 in Part 3. Similarly, the sentential complements appearing with a preposition *on* or *upon* and an *-ing*-clause tend to occur with Sense 2. The diminishing frequency of *to*-infinitive in Part 3,

however, does not provide enough data to investigate the tendency mentioned in Part 2 of the pattern to appear with Sense 2.

8 *Intent* in the BNC

Next I will turn to investigate the tokens with the adjective *intent* that were found in the BNC. The search string *intent* found 379 tokens in total, as the search was restricted to the imaginative prose part of the corpus, which best resembles as genre the text types found in the parts of the CLMET3. Thus the comparison of the tokens found in the two corpora can be applied in the most credible way. Furthermore, the data for the imaginative texts of BNC originate from the years 1960-1993, which is ideal for the diachronic study of the complementation patterns of *intent*.

153 of the tokens of *intent* were irrelevant as 117 nouns and 36 attributive adjectives could be found, which are not relevant to the study concerned. The number of attributive adjectives in the data is relatively high compared to the previous periods, which might be of interest considering future studies, as mentioned earlier. In the following sections I will first present the overall frequencies of the complementation patterns appearing with *intent* and then further investigate the non-sentential and sentential patterns and the occurrence of complexity factors among them. Secondly, I will discuss the correlation of the complementation patterns with the two senses of *intent* and compare the tendencies found in the CLMET3 with the data of BNC.

8.2 Complementation Patterns

The following complementation patterns represented in Table 9 were found in the predicative instances of the adjective *intent* in the imaginative prose part of the BNC:

Pattern	Raw number	Normalized frequency	Percentage
<i>on</i> + NP	51	3.81	23%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	102	7.61	45%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	0.15	1%
<i>upon</i> + NP	10	0.75	4%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	11	0.82	5%
<i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	0	0	0%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	1	0.07	0.5%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	1	0.07	0.5%
Zero	47	3.51	21%
that-clause	1	0.07	0.5%
Total	226	16.86	100%

Table 9. BNC Complementation Patterns

First time in the data under examination, the sentential pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause was to be found on the first place as the most common pattern with the frequency of 7.61, being thus notably more common than the other patterns in the data. The second most common pattern was the non-sentential pattern *on* + NP with the frequency of 3.81, thus losing the first place for the second time in the study this being the first time that it loses it to a sentential complementation pattern. The third most common pattern was also somewhat surprising, as the zero complement occurred with the frequency of 3.51 (21%) in the data, rising one place from the place four it held in the CLMET3 Part 3.

The three most common patterns were notably more frequent in comparison to the rest of the patterns. The fourth most common pattern was the sentential pattern *upon* + *-ing*-clause but the frequency still remained rather low, 0.82, increasing from the frequencies found in the CMLET3.

The pattern *upon* + NP was on the fifth place but came down in frequency when compared with the frequencies in the CLMET3, occurring in the BNC with the frequency of 0.75.

The remaining patterns were very infrequent in the data *on* + *wh*-clause appearing with the frequency of 0.15 and *in* + *-ing*-clause with the frequency of 0.07. The infrequency of the two patterns mentioned was not surprising, however, as they were among the least frequent patterns throughout the data in the CLMET3 as well. A noteworthy development was also the continuation of the pattern *to*-infinitive to become less frequent as a complement of *intent*, appearing in the BNC only with the frequency of 0.07. A new pattern, *that*-clause, emerged as well as complement of *intent*, which I will discuss further with the sentential patterns. The patterns *upon* + *wh*-clause and *in* + NP did not, unsurprisingly, appear in the data at all. I will deepen the discussion of the complementation patterns discussing the non-sentential and the sentential patterns and the appearing complexity factors separately.

8.2.1 Non-Sentential Complements

First time in the data a non-sentential pattern was not on the first place as the most common complementation pattern. The pattern that appeared on the first place in two parts of CLMET3 was, however, the second most frequent complementation pattern in the BNC as well, i.e. the pattern *on* + NP with the frequency of 3.81, which is also the highest frequency of the pattern so far. The second most common non-sentential pattern in the data changed for the first time, as in the CLMET3 the pattern *upon* + NP was always on this place. The only exception was when this pattern was to be found on the first place in Part 2 and *on* + NP thus appearing on the second place. In the BNC, however, the zero complement appeared with the frequency of 3.51 thus leaving the pattern *upon* + NP with the frequency of 0.75 on the third place among the non-sentential complements. The

following instances of the three most common non-sentential patterns appeared in the data, among others:

(72) ... Could you pass that skewer Charles? she asked, **intent on the oven's contents**... (ASE 1933)

(73) ... They had been so **intent upon it**, they never heard the back door open and shut, or saw the shadow at the scullery door until Marcus Judge said ... (FPM 898)

(74) ... But when he talked he looked the same as he had always done; eager, **intent**, screwing up his boneless nose, gesturing with broad, stubby-fingered hands... (CEX 2193)

When looking at the development of the frequency of the zero complement a gradual increase can be seen; In the CLMET3 Part 1 it appeared only with the frequency of 0.09, in Part 2 slightly more commonly with 0.44 and in Part 3 already with 0.63 being the fourth most common complementation pattern with *intent*. An even higher increase occurred in the data of the BNC, however, as zero complement appeared with the frequency of 3.51 being the third most common pattern and carving a significant gap between the next most common pattern. In conclusion, when the adjective *intent* appeared almost solely with a complement in the years 1710-1780 of CLMET3 Part 1, towards the late twentieth century 21% of the tokens appear without a complement.

The pattern *upon* + NP, then again, showed a significant decrease in its frequency; In CLMET3 Part 1 the frequency was 1.42, in Part 2 it rose notably up to 3.09 but in Part 3 decreased again all the way down to 0.95 and continued in this path of decreasing, appearing with the frequency of 0.75 in the BNC. The decrease of the pattern especially in the BNC was a rather significant one, especially as the pattern had been among the three most common patterns throughout the data of the CLMET3 and dropped to the fifth place in the data of BNC.

Both patterns with a preposition + NP occur in complex environments, rather infrequently, however:

(75) ... I mused on Toby's story as I walked towards the clubhouse and so **intent** was I **on my thoughts** that I nearly knocked over Sally Drayton as I passed the PGA hut... (CS4 950)

(76) ... He watched her going down the steps of the stand, nervous and **intent** as though **on a holy mission**... (H7H 1894)

(77) ... Gemma watching them from her bedroom window as they paced beneath the chestnut trees, engrossed, almost entwined, like turning to like, **intent** wholly and exclusively **upon one another**... (H7P 1430)

Example (75) is an instance of the previously often appeared construction *so intent* followed by an inverted subject and verb, whereas in examples (76) and (77) an item is inserted between the adjective and its complement, thus creating a complex sentence. In the case of example (76) the inserted element is a conjunction when with (77) the item is an intensifier. Examples provide a rather small sample of evidence on their own to analyse complexity, but provide further data to combine with the previous instances of complexity factors, which I will further discuss in the section 9 comparing the results in the data to the claims of grammarians. For now, suffice it to say that the *on* + NP is moderately more common in complex environments occurring twice among all the 11 complex sentences, while *upon* + NP only occurred once, which proves against Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) Complexity Principle as it states the more explicit alternative would be expected in such environments.

Similarly to the data in the CLMET3 Part 1 and 3, the pattern *in* + NP did not appear in the BNC data at all as a complement of *intent*, and in this light the appearance of the pattern with the frequency of 0.35 in Part 2 can be stated to have remained a mere anomaly of the period. It remains to be seen how the overall decrease of non-sentential patterns in comparison to the sentential patterns affects the frequency of Sense 1 in relation to Sense 2, which I will discuss in Section 8.3.

8.2.2 Sentential Complements

The nearly ground breaking overtaking of the sentential pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause over the non-sentential patterns was a very remarkable development, though not entirely unexpected as the pattern had increased consistently in the data of CLMET3. It occurred in the eighteenth century data of Part 1 with the frequency of 0.95, increased slightly through the late eighteenth century and early nineteenth century to the frequency of 1.76, dropping slightly during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century to 1.11 but still rising to be the second most common pattern of the period and finally leaping to the frequency of 7.61 towards the late twentieth century. Thus the pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause can be seen to have become the most usually appearing complement with *intent* in the most recent data of the study, which is a remarkable finding regarding the complementation of *intent*. This is in line with the Great Complement Shift that Vosberg (2009, 213) and Rohdenburg (2006, 143) discuss, among others, since there has been a strong tendency for the *to*-infinitive to become less frequent while the *-ing*-clause takes over the environments where infinitive has earlier appeared thus becoming more and more common. The data of BNC and CLMET3 clearly support this tendency as *to*-infinitive has become almost non-existent while the patterns with *preposition* + *-ing*-clause appear with 50% of the tokens in the BNC.

Moreover, there can be seen a widening of the gap between this pattern and the similar pattern with *upon*, as *upon* + *-ing*-clause has gradually decreased in frequency in comparison. It appeared with the frequency of 0.76 in the CLMET3 Part 1, decreased to 0.62 in Part 2 and further down to 0.48 in Part 3. In the BNC it appeared with the frequency of 0.82 but in relation to the similar pattern with *on*, remained as the ever less frequent variant. Nevertheless, the pattern would not seem to be disappearing, rather simply used in different kinds of environments, i.e. in more formal

environments than the more common alternative *on+ -ing*-clause. Examples of both constructions can be seen underneath:

(78) ... She seemed a bright, unthinking product of the sixties, **intent on enjoying** herself when everybody else had settled down... (AC3 1321)

(79) ... Anna and Jurgen, Charlotte and Horst; both sets of parents had been **intent upon creating** well-rounded offspring, and the holidays on Møn, whilst providing an excellent opportunity for the two young people to make music together... (AEA 701)

Example (79) shows that the sentence within which the pattern with *upon* appears can be analysed to be more formal, especially as it appears with the words *offspring* and *whilst*, which *OED* characterizes as formal words (*OED* Online). Thus the less frequent but more formal alternative *upon + -ing*-clause would seem to occur in more formal sentences, although the *on+ -ing*-clause tends to be used in most cases which do not include high degree of formality.

The rest of the sentential patterns that appeared in the data were extremely infrequent occurring only once or twice in the data. Unsurprisingly, the patterns *on+ wh*-clause, with the frequency of 0.15, and *in+ -ing*-clause, with the frequency of 0.07, were among these least frequent ones, which is in accordance with the findings from the data of CLMET3 as well. The instances of the two patterns can be seen underneath:

(80) ... He seemed **intent on what James was saying**, and was obviously not going to rise to her remark... (FRS 939)

(81) ... she could have walked past her a dozen times and never even noticed her, so **intent** had she been **in enjoying** her own experience, so wrapped up in the ambience ... (HA5 1318)

As can be seen in example (81), this is an instance of a complexity factor, which I will discuss further later on in this section. A noteworthy finding is, however, the infrequency of the pattern *to*-infinitive, as it appeared only with the frequency of 0.07 in the BNC, especially when we compare the frequency the pattern had in the CLMET3. In Part 1 the pattern was quite frequent, occurring with the frequency of 1.04, but started decreasing in Part 2 to 0.62, going further down in Part 3 and appearing only with

the frequency of 0.16. One interesting factor when comparing the frequency of *to*-infinitive and *-ing*-clauses is Vosberg's (2003, 308) extraction principle that was introduced in Section 3.3.2. According to this principle we would expect *to*-infinitives to appear more commonly in extraction environments. In the data, however, in such complex environments *to*-infinitive (84) appeared only once, while *on* + *-ing*-clause, as in examples (82) and (83), occurred in 6 instances and *in* + *-ing*-clause in example (81) once, as can be seen in examples underneath:

(82) ... Corbett forgot about those around him so **intent** was he **on watching** the water... (BMN 1473)

(83) ...Ellie groaned as she watched her father stride to the door, **intent**, it appeared, **on confronting** Madame... (EEW 1990)

(84) ... Who, an old soldier, was **intent**, one way or the other, **to make** a man of him... (BNC 942)

There were 11 complex sentences in total in the data, 8 of which were instances of sentential complements. Thus the data does not provide evidence for the extraction principle, quite the contrary, as *-ing*-clause was notably more common in complex environments than *to*-infinitive clause, appearing in 7 of the 8 sentences. 4 of the sentences were of the construction *so intent* followed by inverted subject and verb, as in example (82), and in the remaining cases an element was inserted between *intent* and its complement, as in examples (83) and (84). The examples show, however, that the otherwise rare patterns that seem to be disappearing survive longer in complex environments. This can be seen in the fact that *on* + *-ing*-clause appeared in the data with the frequency of 7.61 while with both *in* + *-ing*-clause and *to*-infinitive clause the only instance of the pattern occurred in a complex sentence. Rohdenburg (2006, 152) noticed a similar kind of tendency with the marked infinitives and unmarked infinitives in his data, where the "the erosion of the marked infinitive is clearly delayed in the more complex extraction context". I will discuss the extraction principle further in Section 9 considering all the data analysed.

It is noteworthy, moreover, that a new pattern, *that*-clause, appeared as complement of *intent*:

(85) ... The Duchess, **intent that every particular of her ball should be arranged to perfection**, insisted on a demonstration... (CMP 659)

This pattern never appeared in the earlier data as complement of *intent*, but this one instance might still be regarded as a whim of a single author and no major conclusions can be drawn according to this. It does, however, account for a possibility for such a pattern to co-occur with *intent*. Thus, similarly to the statement earlier on the pattern *in* + NP, this pattern can be analysed to be an anomaly of the period, as was the single appearance of the pattern *upon* + *wh*-clause in the CLMET3 Part 3 that did not occur in the data of other parts or the BNC at all. In order to investigate the matter further I searched the adjective *intent* appearing with *that*-clause complement in the entire BNC using the search string *intent that*, thus not restricting the search to imaginative prose part of the BNC this time. 13 instances of *that*-clause pattern could be found but only 3 of these, including the one token mentioned already, were instances of the adjective *intent*, thus the remaining ones being tokens of the noun *intent*. The following two illustrations appeared in the data of the entire BNC, in addition to example (85) given above:

(86) ... He returned her look with a glance so suddenly **intent that she felt a flash of absurd panic**, and rose hurriedly to busy herself with the teapot... (H8X 2058)

(87) ...James was so **intent that he did not hear Sara enter the room**... (J54 1227)

Though these two illustrations look similar to example (85), they are actually not instances of a *that*-clause complementing *intent*. Here the *that*-clause is actually licensed by *so* in the two examples above and are not included as complements of *intent*. Thus the pattern remains very rare even in the data of the entire corpus, appearing with the normalized frequency of 0.01 in the approximately 100 million words (specifically 96,986,707 words) BNC covers and does not play a significant role in the complementation of *intent*, though still remains a possible option.

8.3 Patterns and Senses

In this section I will examine how the two senses of *intent* correlate with the patterns in the late twentieth century and compare the results with the results found in the CLMET3 and discuss whether the same kind of tendencies can be found in the BNC. The correlation between the two senses and the patterns is illustrated in Table 10 underneath:

Pattern	Raw number of Sense1	Percentage of Sense1	Raw number of Sense2	Percentage of Sense2
<i>on</i> + NP	41	18%	10	4%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	16	7%	86	38%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2	1%	0	0%
<i>upon</i> + NP	10	4%	0	0%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	2	1%	9	4%
<i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	0	0%	0	0%
<i>in</i> + NP	0	0%	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	0	0%	1	0,5%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	0	0%	1	0,5%
zero	46	20%	1	0,5%
<i>that</i> -clause	0	0%	1	0,5%
Total	117	52%	109	48%

Table 10. BNC Senses and complementation patterns

The progress noticed when investigating the relation of the senses in the CLMET3 can be seen to continue in the BNC as well. When the Sense 2 featured with only 37% of the tokens in CLMET3 Part 1 and with 35% in Part 2, it had come up slightly to 40% in Part 3. As can be seen in the table above, Sense 2 occurred in the BNC with almost half of the tokens, with 48%, being only slightly less common than Sense 1, which has been the most common sense throughout the data in the CLMET3. The high frequency of Sense 2 would then explain the notably higher frequency of the pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause when compared to the frequency this pattern had in the CLMET3, as this pattern is strongly related to Sense 2. The pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause features with Sense 2 in 38% of

the tokens in the data of the BNC, whereas it was found with Sense 1 only in 7% of them. Example

(88) illustrates Sense 1 while example (89) is an instance of Sense 2:

(88) ...They were so **intent on watching** every car that they failed to pick up Moran's until it was turning slowly in the gate under the yew tree... (A6N 2093)

(89) ... Montrose was a staunch loyalist and one year after Cromwell and his gang removed King Charles I's head from his shoulders, Montrose landed in Orkney, **intent upon restoring** the murdered king's son to the throne... (AS7 1763)

Example (88) clearly shows that the full attention of the subject is on watching every car, a concrete object of interest and action while in example (89) the goal is a more abstract one, "restoring the murdered king's son to the throne", where means are not clearly stated but the subject is nevertheless determined to achieve this goal. Moreover, with Sense 1 the action is often related to watching something and thus giving one's full attention to this concrete object of observation while in Sense 2 the object of determination can be broader range of actions or goals. Furthermore, the similar pattern with *upon* occurs with Sense 2 in 4% of the cases but only with 1% in Sense 1. Similarly, the remaining sentential patterns except *on* + *wh*-clause appeared solely with Sense 2, i.e. *in* + *-ing*-clause, *to*-infinitive and *that*-clause, but due to the rarity of these patterns no major conclusion can be drawn according to this.

The non-sentential patterns *on* + NP and *upon* + NP, then again, appeared clearly most commonly with Sense 1, the former with 18% and the latter with 4%, in comparison to the *on* + NP appearing with only 4% of the tokens and *upon* + NP with none of the tokens in Sense 2. Example (90) illustrates Sense 1 and example (91) Sense 2:

(90) ... No, you were too **intent on investigation** of her neckline... (B1X 726)

(91) ... It was that truck driver who was **intent on murder**, Monica interjected grimly. (CN3 2754)

In example (90), again, the subject is giving his or her full attention on watching "her neckline", on a concrete object expressed by a NP with Sense 1. In example (91) the object of interest is expressed

by a NP as well but it remains still rather abstract especially as regards the means of achieving this end, “murder”. Furthermore, the zero complement that was significantly more common in the data appearing with Sense 1 with 20% of the tokens but with Sense 2 in only 0.5% of the tokens. Thus there is a clear tendency of the non-sentential patterns to occur with Sense 1 and of the sentential patterns, especially with the patterns *preposition* + *-ing*-clause, to occur with Sense 2, to be seen in the data of the BNC as well.

9 Findings versus Grammars

Now I will turn to discuss the findings of the analysis part and compare them with what would have been expected to be found according to the grammarians, thus providing answers to the second research question. Moreover, I will discuss the findings to the third research question of the thesis, i.e. how the extra-semantic factors affect the complementation of *intent*. I will focus on the Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) Complexity Principle and Vosberg's (2003, 308) extraction principle in specific, but also comment on claims made by other grammarians. The two research questions given below for ease of reference:

- (ii) How do the findings correlate with the information in the grammars, dictionaries and earlier literature on *intent*?
- (iii) How do the extra-semantic factors, especially the Complexity Principle and the Extraction Principle, bear on the complementation patterns of *intent*?

According to Rohdenburg's Complexity Principle (2003, 205), a more explicit construction would be expected to appear in a more complex environment. The choice between the prepositions *on* and *upon*, for example in the patterns *on* + NP, *upon* + NP, *on* + *-ing*-clause and *upon* + *-ing*-clause, is an instance of a less and a more explicit alternative, the former being the less explicit and the latter being the more explicit but also more formal, as Rohdenburg (1996, 151) states. In the data, however, the less explicit alternative, the preposition *on*, was to be found more commonly in complex environments, as can be seen in Table 11 underneath:

Pattern	Raw number	Normalized frequency	Percentage
<i>on</i> + NP	18	0.38	45%
<i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	8	0.17	20%
<i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	1	0.02	3%
<i>upon</i> + NP	3	0.02	8%
<i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	1	0.02	3%
<i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	1	0.02	3%

<i>in</i> + NP	0	0	0%
<i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	3	0.02	8%
<i>to</i> -infinitive	5	0.10	13%
Zero	0	0	0%
that-clause	0	0	0%
Total	40	0.84	100%

Table 11. Complexity and Complementation Patterns

In total 40 complex constructions were found in the whole data of 47.8 million words. The construction *on* + NP appeared in 45% of the complex sentences, whereas the similar pattern with *upon* only occurred in 8% of them. The notably higher general frequency of the former pattern must be taken into consideration, but nevertheless the rarity of *upon* in comparison to *on* does not support the claim of Complexity Principle. Similarly, when comparing the constructions *on* + *-ing*-clause and *upon* + *-ing*-clause, the less explicit alternative is more common. It occurred with 20% of the tokens in these complex environments as well, whereas the more explicit alternative occurred only in 3% of them, proving against Rohdenburg's principle. In total, the relative frequency of all patterns including *on* in these complex sentences was 67%, while the relative frequency of all the patterns including *upon* was only 13%.

It is interesting to notice, however, the appearance of some of the most infrequent patterns in the data in these kind of complex environments. The patterns *on* + *wh*-clause and *upon* + *wh*-clause both appeared once when a complexity factor was present, which is noteworthy when we consider that the former pattern only appeared 9 times in the whole data. Similarly, the only instance of the latter pattern was to be found in a sentence involving *wh*-movement, which can be seen in example (62) under section 7.2.2. Moreover, 3 of the total 5 sentences including an *in* + *-ing*-clause in the whole data occurred in complex sentences, which provides further evidence to Rohdenburg's (2003, 205) claim that the more explicit alternatives originate first, and survive longer in these kind

of complex contexts. Further evidence for this can be found when we look at the data from the BNC, as the only instance of the disappearing pattern *to*-infinitive occurred in a complex sentence, which can be seen in example (84) under Section 8.2.2.

Vosberg's extraction principle (2003, 308) also considers complex environments, especially with extractions, and according to this principle *to*-infinitive would be expected to be more common than an *-ing*-clause when extraction takes place. In the data, however, the patterns involving an *-ing*-clause ((*up*)*on/in* + *-ing*-clause) appear in 30% of the complex sentences, whereas *to*-infinitive clause only appears with 13% of them. Here we have to bear in mind, however, the smaller overall frequency of the *to*-infinitive pattern when compared to *-ing*-clauses in the data. Nevertheless, the data does not provide proof for the extraction principle either, quite the contrary.

Poutsma (1904, 665), then again, states that (*up*)*on* + NP is the only pattern that is still used today, a claim which would anticipate a high frequency of these two patterns. As we can see from the other complementation patterns appearing with *intent*, this claim does not have support in the data, though the said patterns do appear very frequently with *intent*. Moreover, he states the *to*-infinitive pattern to be obsolete (ibid.), which the data proves not to be the case, the pattern does seem to be getting less and less common towards the late twentieth century, however. Furthermore, Poutsma (MS) states *to* + NP pattern to be a complementation pattern of the adjective *intent* but this pattern was not to be found in the data at all. Huddleston and Pullum's (2002, 543-544) observation that the less formal preposition *on* would be used more commonly than the more formal alternative *upon* found, however, evidence in the data. More specifically, the preposition *on* can be seen to appear significantly more commonly in the data both preceding a NP and an *-ing*-clause when compared with the preposition *upon*. Furthermore, Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.) as well as Quirk et al. (1985, 1221) state that *intent* belongs to the adjectives which form a firm lexical unit with the following

preposition and thus virtually obligatorily require a preposition to follow. Though prepositional complementation patterns were rather frequent in the data, the data of the late twentieth century prove a change in this tendency. That is to say that the zero complement has increased in frequency quite remarkably, which proves that a complement is not obligatory with *intent*.

10 Conclusion

The first research question of the present study was to investigate the complementation patterns of *intent* and their change and development over the period of 1710-1993 under examination. Moreover, the last research question states as the object to study how the two senses of *intent* correlate with the complementation patterns it takes. In the present study, in the total of 47.8 million words 491 tokens of the adjective *intent* and its complementation patterns were analysed. I will discuss the findings to the research questions mentioned above and summarize the major conclusions that can be drawn from the data. Furthermore, I will discuss the non-sentential patterns and the sentential patterns and compare their occurrence in the data. These two research questions are illustrated underneath for ease of reference:

- (i) What are the complementation patterns to appear with *intent* during the years 1710-1993? Are there diachronic changes to be found with these complementation patterns?
- (iv) How do the different senses and the complementation patterns of *intent* correlate with each other?

I will illustrate the occurrence and change of different complementation patterns in Table 12 underneath and divide the complementation patterns into non-sentential, sentential and the zero complement to show the fluctuation of the frequency of these categories throughout the years:

Corpus, Time Period	Complementation Pattern	Frequency
CLMET3 Part 1: 1710-1780	Non-Sentential: <i>on</i> + NP, <i>upon</i> + NP	4.19
	Sentential: <i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive, <i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause, <i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	6.48
	Zero Complement	0.10
CLMET3 Part 2:	Non-Sentential: <i>on</i> + NP, <i>upon</i> + NP, <i>in</i> + NP	6.28

1780-1850	Sentential: <i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive, <i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause, <i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause	3.27
	Zero Complement	0.44
CLMET3 Part 3: 1850-1920	Non-Sentential: <i>on</i> + NP, <i>upon</i> + NP	3.09
	Sentential: <i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive, <i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>upon</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause	2.14
	Zero Complement	0.63
BNC: 1960-1993	Non-Sentential: <i>on</i> + NP, <i>upon</i> + NP	4.55
	Sentential: <i>on</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>upon</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>on</i> + <i>wh</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive, <i>in</i> + <i>-ing</i> -clause, <i>that</i> -clause	8.80
	Zero Complement	3.50

Table 12. Complementation patterns in the data categorized

The non-sentential pattern *on* + NP was throughout the years 1710-1920 overall the most common pattern of *intent* having the pattern *upon* + NP as its strongest rival. The latter pattern did indeed appear more commonly during the period of 1780-1850 but only temporarily, and towards the end of the twentieth century it came down substantially in frequency appearing only with 4% of the tokens from 1960s onwards. One explanation may be the rather formal nature of the preposition *upon*, as stated by Rohdenburg (1996, 152) as well, which would restrict it to more formal contexts and thus make it more marginal than the less formal alternative. This can also be seen when we investigate the patterns *on* + *-ing*-clause and *upon* + *-ing*-clause. The pattern *upon* + *-ing*-clause decreased substantially in frequency towards the late twentieth century in a similar manner to *upon* + NP in relation to the pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause, which on the contrary increased gradually but remarkably over the years under investigation.

The second pattern challenging the domination of *on* + NP was, indeed, the sentential pattern *on* + *-ing*-clause which became gradually more common over the years overtaking eventually both non-sentential patterns *on* + NP and *upon* + NP in the period of 1960-1993. An explanation for this may lay in the semantics, as the non-sentential patterns appear most commonly with Sense 1, whereas the sentential patterns appear most often with Sense 2. The tendency of Sense 1, which bears the meaning “showing strong interest and attention”, to appear with the non-sentential prepositional complements might be the key to the explanation. The action of showing strong interest and attention seems to require an actual and often also a concrete object which can best be expressed with prepositional phrase containing a noun phrase as object. Sense 2, “determined to do something”, then again, does not take a noun phrase object in the usual case as it expresses action which can be best expressed with an *-ing*-clause. Thus the action-related meaning of Sense 2 can usually be better expressed with the *-ing*-clause, whereas the nominal features of the Sense 1 seem to be better expressed by a non-sentential pattern containing a NP. Further evidence to this can be found when we look into the slight tendency of the *to*-infinitive clause to occur with Sense 2 and the clear tendency of the zero complement, included here under the category of non-sentential complements, to appear with Sense 1, as proven by the data. In conclusion, there seems to be a tendency of the sentential complements with verbal characteristics to appear with Sense 2 and the non-sentential complements with nominal features to appear with Sense 1.

Two further notable developments were discernible in the data. The first one is the substantial decrease of the *to*-infinitive pattern, as it came down from being the third most common pattern in 1710-1780 to occurring only once in a complex sentence from 1960s onwards. An explanation to this might be the Great Complement Shift, as Vosberg (2009, 213) notes, according to which the head previously selecting only *to*-infinitive clauses now selects the gerund as its

complement in an increasing frequency as well. The increase of the *-ing*-clause was clearly discernible in the data, which supports this claim by Vosberg (ibid.) as well. The second, an even more remarkable development that might play a part in explaining the decrease of *to*-infinitive, was the substantial increase of the zero complement towards the late twentieth century. While in the 18th century *intent* almost obligatorily needed a complement to follow and the frequency of zero complement being only 2% of the tokens, from 1960s onwards *intent* occurred without a complement in 21% of the tokens. This is a remarkable change in the complementation of *intent* over the 280 years.

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